

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XXIX

SEPTEMBER, 1921

NUMBER 7

## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### THE REORGANIZED NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The delegates who now constitute the voting membership of the National Education Association met in Des Moines during the week of July 4. It was a thoroughly representative body so far as the elementary schools and normal schools were concerned. Representation from the higher institutions was meager. The delegates came from the different branches of the teaching profession; there were normal-school presidents and teachers, superintendents, supervisors, and classroom teachers. If there was any lack of complete representation from the public schools, it was from the high schools, although there were some representatives from this division of the school system.

The machinery of the organization moved smoothly. It is now evident that those who planned the new type of association did their work with constructive insight. The major credit for the new organization is due to William B. Owen, principal of the Chicago Normal College. This fact seems to have been overlooked at Salt Lake City and, because of the agreement to make a woman president this year, it was overlooked at Des Moines. It is to be hoped that Mr. Owen's faithful service to the Association, his

wise advice, and his fearless conduct at all junctures will bring him recognition at the next meeting. It was nothing but a political combination which defeated him at Salt Lake City.

Gratifying evidence appeared several times at the Des Moines meeting that the days of purely political control are over. The group that controlled the Salt Lake City meeting was quite unable to nominate its candidate for the presidency for the coming year. Miss Charl O. Williams, Superintendent of Schools, Shelby County, Tennessee, was elected. On the other hand, when a representative of the Federation of Teachers tried to raise issues of a technical sort with the apparent intent of blockading business, the delegates made it perfectly clear that they did not intend to allow the control of the meeting to pass out of the hands of the constituted authorities of the Association. The Des Moines meeting was a delegates' meeting; it did not recognize as its master either political boss or agitator.

President Hunter made a vigorous plea for professional solidarity and for committee work which will lead to the better organization of American education. Miss Williams made it clear, after her election, that she intends to follow the same line of progressive emphasis on educational organization, with special attention to rural education.

The meeting was in one respect somewhat confused. The attempt had been made by the officers to arrange a speech-making program and to bring in members of the educational profession who were not delegates, on the theory that the Association could retain something of its old form as well as carry on the work of the house of delegates. The attendance other than that of delegates was small and drawn from the territory adjacent to Des Moines. The effort to have two kinds of meeting in one led to frequent delays in the speech-making and to unsatisfactory curtailment of the business sessions. The meeting would have been, perhaps, a little less spectacular if the general sessions had been dropped, but it certainly would have been more productive of adequate discussions at the business sessions.

One important line of action was taken that is likely to be of far-reaching importance. The departments were allowed a certain

degree of autonomy. Already the Department of Superintendence has assumed a degree of independence. It plans to have funds of its own and to control its membership. There appears to be no final objection to its carrying out these plans, though, when action was first taken in these directions at Atlantic City, it was freely prophesied that the Association would blockade the Department's efforts to secure its independence. The newly organized Department of Elementary-School Principals has also decided to have funds and a series of publications of its own, so that it seems not unlikely that within the Association there will be various examples of independence.

Perhaps these examples of independence will lead the Association to devise methods of enlarging its plans of representation. Some plan of departmental representation might serve the double advantage of correcting the inadequacies in representation from high schools and higher institutions which were mentioned in an earlier paragraph and of uniting into a solid organization departments that tend to separate. At present, representation is purely on a geographical and numerical basis. Professional groups as such have no voice except through local representatives. A plan of professional representation added to the present system does not seem impossible and would have obvious advantages.

On the whole, the first meeting of the reorganized Association was a success, full of promise of productive work for the future. If the next few years witness the same independence of action that characterized the Des Moines meeting and bring forth substantial reports of committees that have really studied their problems, the Association may once more serve a useful purpose in promoting American education.

JOHN J. TIGERT, COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

Early in the summer John J. Tigert was appointed Commissioner of Education of the United States by the President. Mr. Tigert was not well known to school people, and there was some question raised in various quarters about the method of appointing a successor to Commissioner Claxton, who had been in office under two administrations of different political complexion. The doubts

of anyone who has come into close contact with the new commissioner since his appointment have been allayed by the good judgment and vigor which he has displayed in dealing with the problems of the Bureau of Education; and further acquaintance with his record brings out the fact that while he starts without wide acquaintance with school people, he has a record of educational service with the army which makes him an acceptable officer to the American Legion.

The retirement of Commissioner Claxton marks the close of a long term of faithful service. Dr. Claxton came to the office from the South, where he was a leader in educational activities of all kinds. He has done much in the way of enlarging the scope of publications of the Bureau and in the way of organizing meetings of citizens to promote the cause of public education. He has been tireless in carrying the message of educational needs to all parts of the country.

Like his predecessors, Dr. Claxton found it very difficult to secure from Congress support for the Bureau of Education adequate to the many enterprises which it seems clear that the federal government ought to undertake for the improvement of schools. The last half of his administration witnessed the creation of the Federal Board for Vocational Education with its harmful influence in the direction of disruption of the American educational system into a dual organization. Also the recent efforts to secure legislation creating a federal department of education have thrown into conspicuous prominence the insufficiency of the equipment given to the Bureau. In the midst of these difficulties and limitations, Dr. Claxton has been vigorous and enthusiastic for educational betterment. The country owes him a large debt for faithful and effective service.

The new administration faces large possibilities and grave problems. It needs the loyal support and co-operation of all friends of education. Critical talk about the interference of politics in the appointment approaches the humorous when one hears the tales of the scramble on the part of a number of our "leading" educational politicians for the office. The representatives of the organized teachers of this country knew of the proposed



change well in advance of its occurrence and were party to all aspects of it, except the naming of Dr. Claxton's successor. The naming of the successor does not seem to have followed the lines laid down by these same representatives of the profession. One wonders if, on the whole, it is not better that the commissionership should be kept out of educational politics.

At all events, the country and the school world have a new commissioner. He is young, vigorous, and ambitious to help in the building up of schools. He has already reorganized the Bureau of Education in a way that promises increased efficiency. He deserves on his record and on the strength of what he has done in office enthusiastic support from school people and citizens in general.

#### SUPERVISING PRIVATE AND PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS

Last year the citizens of Michigan voted overwhelmingly against a proposed amendment to the constitution of the state which aimed to prohibit the maintenance of any private or parochial school. During the session of the legislature just passed a law was enacted which provides for the supervision of such schools by the State Department of Public Instruction. This law was agreed to by the parochial schools of the state and furnishes probably the strongest defense that these schools can provide against attack in the future of the kind which was made in the proposed amendment to the constitution.

The law will undoubtedly serve as a model for other states. It embodies a principle to which there can hardly be any objection on the part of any section of the population. Public schools are compelled to maintain standards. Why should not private schools be obliged to hold to the same level?

The new law is of enough importance to justify quoting a large part of its text. The clauses which provide for assistants in the Department of Public Instruction and for the funds to maintain inspection may be omitted. The essential provisions are given in the following sections:

SECTION 1. . . . It is the intent of this act that the sanitary conditions of such schools, the courses of study therein, and the qualifications of the teachers

thereof shall be of the same standard as provided by the general school laws of the state.

SEC. 2. A private, denominational, or parochial school within the meaning of this act shall be any school other than a public school giving instruction to children below the age of sixteen years, in the first eight grades as provided for the public schools of the state, such school not being under the exclusive supervision and control of the officials having charge of the public schools of the state.

SEC. 3. No person shall teach or give instruction in any of the regular or elementary-grade studies in any private, denominational, or parochial school within this state who does not hold a certificate such as would qualify him or her to teach in like grades of the public schools of the state: Provided, however, That any person who shall have taught in any elementary school or schools of the standard specified in this act for a period of ten years or more preceding the passage of this act, shall, upon filing proof of service with the Superintendent of Public Instruction, be entitled to a certificate by said Superintendent of Public Instruction in such form as he shall prescribe to teach in any of the said schools within the state: Provided further, That teaching in such schools shall be equivalent to teaching in the public schools for all purposes in obtaining a certificate: Provided further, That the teachers affected by this act may take any examination as now provided by law and that the Superintendent of Public Instruction may direct such other examinations at such time and place as he may see fit: Provided further, That any certificate issued under or by virtue of this act shall be valid in any county in this state for the purpose of teaching in the schools operated under this act: Provided further, That any person holding a certificate issued by the authorities of any recognized or accredited normal school, college, or university of this or other state shall be entitled to certification as now provided by law: Provided, however, That teachers employed in such private, denominational, or parochial schools when this act takes effect shall have until September 1, 1925, to obtain a legal certificate as herein provided.

SEC. 4. In event of any violation of this act the Superintendent of Public Instruction shall serve the person, persons, corporation, association, or other agencies who operate, maintain, and conduct a private, denominational, or parochial school within the meaning of this act with a notice, time and place of hearing, such hearing to take place within fifteen days after the date of said notice and at a place located in or conveniently near the county where such violation took place, accompanied by a copy of the complaint stating the substance of said violation. If at such hearing the Superintendent of Public Instruction shall find that the violation complained of has been established he shall then serve said person, persons, corporation, association, or other agencies with an order to comply with the requirements of this act found to have been violated within a reasonable time not to exceed sixty days from the date of such order: Provided, That in the event that such order

refers to sanitary conditions that the said person, persons, corporation, association, or other agencies shall have six months to remedy the defect. If the order of the Superintendent of Public Instruction as specified in said notice shall not have been obeyed within the time specified herein said Superintendent of Public Instruction may close said school and prohibit the said person, persons, corporation, association, or other agencies operating or maintaining such private, denominational, or parochial school from maintaining said school or from exercising any of the functions hereunder until said order of the Superintendent of Public Instruction has been complied with. The children attending a private, denominational, or parochial school refusing to comply with the requirements hereof after proceedings herein set forth shall be compelled to attend a public school or approved private, denominational, or parochial school under the provisions of the compulsory education act, the same being Act No. 200 of the Public Acts of 1905, as amended. And it shall be the duty of the person or persons having charge of the enforcement of the said compulsory education act, upon notice from the Superintendent of Public Instruction that said private, denominational, or parochial school has not complied with the provisions hereof, to compel the attendance of the children of said school or schools at the public schools or approved private, denominational, or parochial school.

SEC. 5. The Superintendent of Public Instruction by himself, his assistants, or any duly authorized agent, shall have authority at any time to investigate and examine into the conditions of any school operating under this act as to the matters hereinbefore set forth, and it shall be the duty of such school to admit such superintendent, his assistants, or authorized agents and to submit for examination its sanitary condition, the record of enrolment of pupils, its courses of study as set forth in section 1 of this act, and the qualifications of its teachers. Any refusal to comply with provisions herein on the part of such school or teacher shall be considered sufficient cause to suspend the operation of said school after proceedings taken as stated in section 4 of this act.

#### THE BRYN MAWR SUMMER SCHOOL

The summer school at Bryn Mawr which opened the doors of that university to working girls is described by Joseph L. Copeland in the *New York Evening Post*, to have been an unqualified success. After quoting the enthusiastic comments of a number of the students, Mr. Copeland sums up the situation in the following paragraphs:

The school program provides for fourteen hours of lectures each week, supplemented by ten hours of tutoring. It is divided up as follows: labor and economics, five hours; social or political history, two hours; literature (the novel, drama, poetry, and prose), two hours; English composition, one hour; physiology and hygiene, one hour; appreciation of music, three hours.

During the first two weeks there were seven hours of lectures by Mr. Clay on English labor movements, and during the last six weeks there will be lectures on industrial organization two hours each week. Tutoring periods of an hour each follow all lectures on labor and economics, social and political history, and literature. Evening lectures once or twice a week cover subjects not included in the regular curriculum.

The utter lack of previous knowledge about athletics on the part of the students greatly surprised the college people; but the girls now enter their sports as enthusiastically as they study. For many of them it is the first opportunity they have had in adult life to play. The lesson that good health and a straight, sound, beautiful body are necessary to mental development was a new idea to students who had too often exchanged an hour of sleep for an hour with a book.

"We do not like it, but we do not flinch when we are told we are hollow-backed and have other defects," said Miss Gordon. "Never have any of the girls had such thorough physical examinations as they have had here; never have they received so much good advice on health and how to correct bodily defects. When we go back to the mills and pull silk, weave cloth, and do other tasks requiring all our strength, I suppose we will grow lopsided again; but we will know how to take care of ourselves, and it is our business to see that the lessons in hygiene learned here are carried out when we go away."

A statistical analysis of the school brings out some facts interesting to those to whom figures tell their story. Of native-born Americans with native-born parents there are 27; natives with foreign parents, 18; natives with one native and one foreign parent, 9; Russian, 12; Irish, 3; Polish, Austrian, and English, 2 each; Canadian, Australian, Swedish, Italian, Roumanian, German, and Hungarian, 1 each.

In conclusion it might be well to let the student body speak for itself, as it did in the following words from the *Bryn Mawr Daisy*, the summer-school publication:

"When the schools and colleges become seats of learning not only for a favored few but for all who desire to learn, there can be better understanding among all kinds of people. Society will then be founded on a truer sense of values. Truly . . . a new day is breaking."

#### A PLEA FOR THE CLASSICS

The Vice-President of the United States has taken up the cudgels for the classics. He delivered an address on July 7 at the second annual meeting of the American Classical League and now anyone can, by applying to Dean West of Princeton, get the inspiration of his thoughts for five cents a single copy, or at the rate of \$10.00 for 500 copies.

Mr. Coolidge admits that

The present age has been marked by science and commercialism. In its primary purpose it reveals mankind undertaking to overcome their physical limitations. This is being accomplished by wonderful discoveries which have given the race dominion over new powers. The chief demand of all the world has seemed to be for new increases in these directions. There has been a great impatience with everything which did not appear to minister to this requirement.

This has led to the decline of classical teaching. So Mr. Coolidge reviews briefly the facts of Roman decline which furnish the background for the revival of true learning in the medieval period. His words on this topic are in part as follows:

No question can be adequately comprehended without knowing its historical background. Modern civilization dates from Greece and Rome. The world was not new in their day. They were the inheritors of a civilization which had gone before, but what they had inherited they recast, enlarged, and intensified and made their own, so that their culture took on a distinctive form, embracing all that the past held best in the Roman world of the Caesars. That great Empire fell a prey, first to itself and then to the barbarians. After this seeming catastrophe scholarships and culture almost disappeared for nearly a thousand years, finally to emerge again in the revival of learning. This came almost entirely out of the influence of the Christian church. The revival of learning was the revival of the learning of Greece and Rome plus the teachings of revealed religion. Out of that revival has grown the culture of Western Europe and America.

The argument progresses in the following vein:

It cannot be denied that a superficial knowledge of the classics is only a superficial knowledge. There cannot be expected to be derived from it the ability to think correctly which is the characteristic of a disciplined mind. Without doubt a superficial study of the classics is of less value than a superficial acquaintance with some of the sciences or a superficial business course. One of the advantages of the classics as a course of training is that in modern institutions there is little chance of going through them in a superficial way. Another of their advantages is that the master of them lives in something more than the present and thinks of something more than the external problems of the hour, and after all it was the study of the classics that produced the glories of the Elizabethan age with its poets, its philosophers, its artists, its explorers, its soldiers, its statesmen, and its churchmen.

There is more of like type, but we must not dull the relish of our readers for the original document. When the classical stu-

dents of the country want real support for their cause, it is doubtless desirable that they get some eminent man to come and talk to them on their favorite theme. The assertion by the Vice-President of the United States that classical education in modern institutions has little chance of being superficial proves something. One wonders whether it proves the case for Latin. Mr. Brown's tests show that there is deplorable lack of progress on the part of students of that subject. In fact, one wonders what the state of mind of the classicists must be when they provide themselves with this kind of a defense and sell it at five cents a copy.

#### PROMOTING HIGH-SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Two examples of intelligent propaganda which aims to keep pupils interested in their study and ambitions to go on to high school come to the *School Review* from Pittsburgh and Cleveland. In Pittsburgh the Director of Vocational Guidance has been issuing during the year a series of letters to parents. These letters go home with the reports of work and deal with a variety of topics. One example is the following:

#### IS YOUR CHILD GETTING READY?

"I will study and get ready and then maybe the chance will come."  
—A. Lincoln.

Lincoln as a small boy used these words while learning to add and multiply on the back of a wooden shovel with a piece of charcoal. He had no chair or table or electric light; he is pictured as lying on the floor and getting his light from the fireplace. Lincoln several times said enough to let it be known that his mother devoted much time to his early education. At home he learned accuracy, truthfulness, and industry.

Teachers in the higher grades of our public schools and business men complain that frequently pupils cannot work simple, everyday questions in arithmetic, that they cannot use correct English, that they lack ability to locate prominent cities and countries, or use geography in a practical way. These subjects are taught largely in the fifth and sixth grades and are necessary for success either in the higher studies or in work in offices, stores, shops, and other occupations.

If your son or daughter is getting ready for the higher studies or is preparing to go to work, he or she must first master the subjects taught in the lower grades. This cannot be done unless they attend school regularly and punctually. The success of grown people depends so much on good habits that it is of great importance for children in these early grades to get right

habits of attendance, of preparing school tasks thoroughly, of obedience, and of respect to parents and teachers.

You may not be needed in helping him in his lessons, but you can encourage him in his work by examining very carefully his reports and any school work that he brings home. Show him that the shop and office pay for accurate work and do not want poor or irregular work at any price. If you were engaged in banking or in any other business, how long would you keep a clerk or bookkeeper who is constantly making mistakes or who misses one or two days out of every week?

Nor did Lincoln stop in his "getting ready" with accuracy in the simple arithmetical problems; he mastered geometry and many of the higher subjects. Today many positions that offer opportunities for promotion are open only to boys and girls who have at least a high-school diploma. Can you afford not to give your boy or girl the best education that the Pittsburgh schools offer? Your child may not appreciate your interest now because he is young and short-sighted, but he will do so later. Have patience and hold to your high ideal for him.

Help your child to get ready for his chance.

What about vacation? Read our next letter.

(Signed) DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE  
Pittsburgh Public Schools

The other example, which was issued by the Board of Education of Cleveland, is a book of forty-eight pages entitled "Give Yourself a Fair Start. Go to High School. What It Is. Why It Pays." The book is full of pictures and of descriptions of the opportunities for study and play offered by the high schools of the city. There are testimonials also from former students. Perhaps a quotation of one of these will serve as well as any extract to give an idea of the character of the book. It is as follows:

#### YOU GET BIG RETURNS

A high-school education most certainly does pay, and its dividends are as dependable as those from a Liberty Bond. I do not think that anywhere in this great country of ours you could find a man or a woman who, having graduated from high school, did not feel that he or she had derived great and lasting benefit from the high-school course.

On the other hand, you can easily find thousands of people who regret most deeply that, for some reason or other, they did not complete their high-school education. And though you may encounter successful men or women who did not go to high school, you will be pretty sure to discover, if you question them, that they felt their educational deficiency to be a distinct handicap, and that they have striven in every way to make up this deficiency.



I know that they would be the first to say to every American girl and boy: "By all means fit yourself for a rich and useful life, and for fine American citizenship, by a complete high-school course."

NEW YORK CITY  
(Graduate of a Cleveland High School—  
Noted Playwright)

AVERY HOPWOOD

#### A COMMISSION TO STUDY CHINESE MISSION SCHOOLS

The future of mission schools is a matter which must be carefully studied. In China especially these schools have been the chief source of modern educational ideas. Are the mission schools to continue to serve as examples to the secular schools? Should they modify their work in any way to serve this purpose? Should they continue even after the secular schools have been fully developed? These and like questions need to be carefully considered. To this end the United Mission Boards of Canada, England, and the United States have sent to China a special educational commission.

The American members of the commission sailed from Vancouver August 18 on the Empress of Asia. In China they will be joined by American and Chinese missionaries, representing all Protestant denominations, who for years have been planning and preparing for this work.

Dr. Ernest DeWitt Burton, of the University of Chicago, is chairman of the commission. The other four members are Bishop F. J. McConnell, bishop of the Pittsburgh Area of the Methodist Episcopal Church and former president of DePauw University; Dr. Mary E. Woolley, president of Mount Holyoke College; Professor Percy Roxby, of the University of Liverpool, England; and Dr. W. F. Russell, dean of the College of Education, University of Iowa.

## News Items from the School of Education of the University of Chicago

### THE DEVELOPMENT OF HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULA

The monograph by John E. Stout, Ph.D., entitled *The Development of High-School Curricula in the North Central States from 1860 to 1918* is now available and can be secured from the Department of Education of the University of Chicago. The introductory chapter presents a brief account of the early high schools and furnishes a background for the discussion of the development of high-school curricula. The data which are presented were secured largely from published courses of study and textbooks. In selecting materials for tabulation and interpretation, an effort was made to secure those which would fairly represent prevailing practices. In discussing the organization of curricula and the subject-matter of each course, special emphasis is given to general practices and tendencies rather than to peculiarities of particular schools. High-school principals and teachers will find these discussions of high-school curricula of large value in interpreting current tendencies in high-school subjects.

### HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION IN MISSISSIPPI

The monograph by William H. Weathersby, Ph.D., entitled *A History of Educational Legislation in Mississippi from 1798 to 1860* is ready for distribution and can be secured from the Department of Education. The purpose of Dr. Weathersby's monograph was to describe and analyze the legislation of Mississippi from 1798 to 1860 and to discuss the more significant factors which account for that legislation. A comparison of the educational legislation of Mississippi with that of New York and Ohio reveals wide variation in the origin and development of our state systems and helps in understanding the problems involved in the development of a national system of education.

## HISTORY OF EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION IN NEW JERSEY

The fourth study on the history of the educational legislation of the various states has recently been completed by Dr. F. B. Harrington. These studies, by candidates for the degree of Ph.D. in the Department of Education of the University of Chicago, fill an important gap in our educational history.

The present study is entitled *The History of Educational Legislation in New Jersey from 1776 to 1867*. It follows the general plan of the series, and has chapters on the formative influences, the trend of the legislation, state aid and support of education, administration and supervision, special legislation for cities, secondary and higher institutions, legislation for special classes, and a final chapter on the place of New Jersey in the establishment and development of the various state systems of education. While New Jersey was not a leader in the educational movements of the nineteenth century, the history of her efforts to establish a free school system is of interest because we may see the effects of the policy of conservatism, and of the efforts of local self-governing units in the control of schools. On the other hand, the evolution of state centralization can be followed in the absorption of the powers of school districts and towns by state administrative authorities such as the state board of education and the state superintendent. Another interesting feature of the work is the history of the special legislation enacted to meet the new educational problems of cities. The familiar economic, social, and educational changes brought about by the concentration of population in cities and the shift from agricultural to industrial pursuits are well illustrated in this state. It is hoped that this study will be published within the next year.

## THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF MONTCLAIR, NEW JERSEY

R. L. LYMAN  
University of Chicago

Montclair is a city of 28,000 people, fourteen miles from New York City, and near Newark, New Jersey. Its population consists of approximately 16,000 native white Americans, 4,000 negroes, and 8,000 foreign-born, most of whom are Italians. A first impression, that Montclair is a suburban city composed largely of families of wealth and refinement, is quickly supplanted by a realization of great extremes in social standing. The city is a cosmopolitan eastern community, presenting typical school problems.

### SCHOOL POPULATION

An analysis of the school population shows 3,500 children in Grades I to VI inclusive; 1,129 in Grades VII, VIII, and IX, distributed as follows: seventh grade, 451; eighth grade, 318; ninth grade, 360; and 709 pupils in Grades X, XI, and XII. The heterogeneous population of the community is indicated by the enrolment in the largest junior high school: of the 518 pupils, 47 per cent are of American families; 16 per cent of Italian families; 19 per cent negroes, and all other nationalities 18 per cent. About 10 per cent of the children in Grades I to IX inclusive throughout the city are negroes. This percentage rapidly decreases as the compulsory school age of fourteen years is passed, dropping to 2 per cent in the senior high school. The educational goal of Montclair's school children is represented by the fact that 80 per cent of the junior high school pupils enter the senior high school; and from the latter about 60 per cent of the graduates attend higher institutions.

### SCHOOL COSTS

The total school expenditure of Montclair for 1920, approximately \$600,000, represents an increase of nearly 50 per cent since 1914.

In these years the school tax-rate was raised from 34 to 72 mills. In 1920, the cost per child in all the schools was \$100, as contrasted with \$80 per child in 1914. This school cost, \$100 per pupil for the entire school system, is especially significant because Montclair, proceeding deliberately upon the principle that the higher grades shall not be allowed to absorb undue proportions of available funds, sets aside an unusually large share of appropriations for the elementary and junior high school grades. It is estimated that the senior high school costs are \$115 per pupil, while the corresponding costs in the junior high schools reach \$95.

### THREE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

The entire school system is upon the six-three-three plan. To one who is especially interested in noting how the "lost two years," the seventh and eighth grades, are "saved" by being joined with the ninth grade in separate junior high schools, the Montclair experiment is significant because of the contrasting organizations represented by the three junior high schools. The first, Mount Hebron, is merely a ninth grade added to one of the elementary schools. Since college preparation is the chief goal of the pupils in attendance at this building, there is no attempt to maintain a commercial or an industrial department. Pupils desiring these courses are transferred to one of the other junior high schools. Basement rooms provide adequate facilities for the small amount of shopwork required in the academic course. The gymnasium is one of the best in the city, while abundant playground space is provided for carrying out the requirements of the state physical training law. A small house acquired with a recent purchase of adjacent land is used as a laboratory for domestic science. Here girls learn homemaking under conditions approximately normal.

The second junior high school occupies the entire first floor of a very complete and elaborate building in the center of the city which houses also the senior high school. The two schools are maintained with separate schedules, but with a plan of articulated instruction by which the same staff teaches both schools. The building for these two schools is very complete and modern, possess-

ing extensive and elaborately equipped shops, domestic science rooms, laboratories, two gymnasiums, a library, a model house adjoining, and an unusually attractive outdoor theater.

The third, the Hillside Junior High School, is a distinct school unit, located in buildings adjoining one of the principal elementary schools of the city. This school has a separate heating plant and shops moderately equipped and separate from the main building. One feature of this school not especially emphasized in the others is the evident attempt to equip each classroom to serve as a laboratory or workshop. Built-in cases well filled with books are conspicuous. Evidently collateral and supplementary reading is carried on under the teacher's direction in this school, as contrasted with a very carefully worked out central library for study in the senior high school building.

When the junior high school idea was inaugurated in Montclair in 1915, Superintendent Don C. Bliss felt confident that the combination of the junior and senior high schools would serve best to bridge the gap between the two institutions. But the close articulation of the two in one plant and with one instructional staff discloses several difficulties. First, there is the matter of discipline: apparently the younger pupils cannot wisely use the larger measure of freedom accorded to older students. Second, serious program difficulties appear. The longer class period, deemed imperative for combining study and recitation in the lower grades, cannot be satisfactorily administered in Grades X, XI, and XII. It seems impossible with a joint teaching force to maintain class periods of different length for the two schools. Third, since the junior high school district is small enough to permit all pupils to go home for lunch, many of them are inclined to return early and become troublesome about the building, while the senior high school is in session. At present this difficulty is partially met by giving to the junior high school pupils a noon period of an hour and a half and forbidding them to return until one-thirty o'clock. Fourth, and most important, the upper-grade pupils resent the presence in their building of seventh and eighth-grade children, while the latter continually ape the former to the severe detriment of school morale.

Objections somewhat analogous and almost as serious obtain against the addition of a ninth grade to an ordinary elementary school. Especially noticeable in the Mount Hebron building is the apparent self-satisfaction of ninth-grade pupils, who feel themselves superior to the little children in the lower grades. Moreover, both of the combination plans deny the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades the privilege, so important in developing suitable school unity and solidarity, of feeling that they are citizens in a small community of their own, whose maintenance at a high grade of activity and of order rests upon themselves alone.

As a result of the experience with two junior high schools articulated with other units, and with one junior high school physically and instructionally a distinct unit in itself, Montclair is unequivocally committed to the latter organization. Building plans for the city contemplate three distinct junior high schools. The city is roughly a long narrow rectangle, extending north and south about three miles and east and west about one mile. Present plans will retain the senior high school in the geographical center of the city, will retain also the present Hillside Junior High School a little to the south of the center, and will develop two new junior high schools—one in the east and one in the south sections of the city.

#### TEACHING STAFF

Teachers in Montclair junior high schools are mature men and women of wide experience in teaching, having a high average of both academic and professional training. The primary qualification upon which teachers are chosen is wide experience in the grades; teachers with elementary-school experience are preferred in recognition of the fact that adolescent boys and girls are very much more like children than they are like adults. There is a state requirement that junior high school teachers for ninth-grade classes shall be normal-school graduates or have two years of college training. The authorities welcome extension work for their instructional staff. The superintendent, desperate for a suitable teacher of French, sent an excellent teacher of English to France for study and ultimately transferred her to the French department. Of the teachers who work in Grades VII, VIII, and



IX, twelve have had college training or its equivalent, twenty-four have had normal training in addition to some college work, nine have had previous high-school experience, twenty-eight have had previous elementary-school experience. The maximum junior high school salary for women is \$2,100, \$300 less than the senior high school maximum for women; for men in the junior high school the maximum is \$2,550, as contrasted with \$3,200 for similar positions in the senior high school.

With an instructional staff of this level the school policy of Montclair deliberately leaves the individual teachers free to make their contributions to school success as their ingenuity prompts. Freedom to exercise their own originality after they are acquainted with the educational aims is the keynote of administration throughout the entire system. Bulletins of instruction are issued from time to time; efficient supervisors maintain a fair degree of uniformity of procedure; frequent tests check up the work; teachers are sometimes summoned for conference; but all this is subsidiary to the fundamental principle that teachers are placed upon their own responsibility. The type of training in service which is receiving a thorough tryout in Montclair is insistence that every teacher be actively experimenting in the solution of one or more problems in some line of progressive instruction.

#### INSTRUCTIONAL IDEALS

The general principle of instruction throughout the junior high schools may be stated both negatively and positively. Negatively stated, that principle is: carry on no school activity merely for the sake of carrying on that activity; positively stated: so far as possible, give to every school activity the immediate motivation that lies in the value of a finished product. So large a part is played by this principle in Montclair's endeavor to "save the lost years" that a number of examples from various school enterprises may be in place.

In the shops there is no manual training of the old order. Conspicuous by their absence are the gimcracks, toy furniture, and silly baubles produced in shops of earlier days. Boys make furniture in the form of desks that can be used, of step ladders that

can be sold. Interesting here is the point insisted upon in the case of all articles made for sale. If step ladders can be purchased for an amount smaller than their actual costs in the shops, they are dropped from the curriculum. Moreover, the expense is carefully estimated by figuring the time of the boys, the time of the shop instructor, and the cost of materials. Girls construct work-baskets for their mothers and garments for themselves. In the domestic science kitchens they make bread in "family-size" proportions and concoct desserts that are immediately consumed in the school lunchrooms. The girls do not putter at the theory of canning; they actually can goods for their own homes. One art class prepared attractive calendar prints for 1921, and sold them all for a respectable addition to the class treasury. The children themselves see the disposition of their products in practical utility. Great care is taken, however, to prevent either shop or domestic science work from degenerating into the mere drudgery or routine of preparing many articles of the order described.

At this point it is in place to say that Montclair is not laboring under the delusion that vocational subjects in the junior high school are especially significant in the matter of vocational guidance or "tryout." The experiences even in diversified shop activities are too meager to constitute a tryout. Moreover, many of the children who take the work have no intention of entering a life-career in manual training or domestic science. Placing little faith in the vocational guidance urge for this work, Montclair believes that diversified shop activities are justified by the concrete experiences with tools, with materials, with productive activities and by experiences in the ordinary processes performed constantly by men and women in the routine of daily living.

The value of a product is estimated also in terms of children's play instincts. In the school museums are many water motors that will run sewing machines, beautiful miniature yachts, many of which are made to compete in a yacht race each spring, motor boats, steam engines, telegraph sets, kitchen knives made out of scrap iron, dozens of ball bats and dumb bells, and scores of other objects, into the making of which has entered the motivation of both pleasure and utility on the part of the boys and girls. In

fact, a visitor feels that in this museum he is in a child's paradise. About forty "boys' rooms," strung up with wires, and filled with bells, and boats, and similar ingenious inventions have been brought together in one large room and placed in systematic order.

In the shops every boy seems to feel that his job, and he knows what he is doing and why, is like fixing up a wireless with a neighbor boy, getting ready for a race, or making something to earn money. Shops and domestic science rooms are boy and girl "making-things" rooms; in rooms set apart for such purposes children would enjoy working in their own homes. Naturally it is easy in shop and kitchen work to find illustrations of this principle of motivating school activities by the pleasure and satisfaction in the immediate products. And the same principle motivates other activities. Boys in mechanical drawing laboratories are not copying plates, but are making genuine mechanical drawings. The superintendent needed a plot of the two blocks upon which the Hillside school stands; ninth-grade boys with steel tape made a plot exact enough for the builders. When an old school building was to be remodeled for administrative offices, boys from the mechanical drawing classes made designs which were literally taken and used by the builders.

All articles made in the shops are first planned in the drawing laboratory. Does a lad desire to make a telegraph key out of scrap iron? His work begins in mechanical drawing. Racing yachts are elaborately designed before they are made; designs precede basket-weaving and dressmaking for the girls. The practice of instruction in all the manual arts subjects apparently carries out the theory stated by Snedden:

In general, then, we may expect practical arts education, as developed for children upwards of twelve years of age, to result in products that shall appeal to their producers as valuable—valuable as satisfying instincts of curiosity and construction, as providing facilities for play, as enrichment of the home, as adding to the equipment of the school community.<sup>1</sup>

The practical working out of this principle in the general science laboratories results from the specific direction given teachers: "Allow boys and girls to proceed in any direction, to any extent,

<sup>1</sup>David Snedden, *Vocational Education*, p. 495. New York: Macmillan Co., 1920.

in any individual constructive projects that appeal to them." The only apparent demand is that their inclination shall have a sensible destination in view, and that it shall proceed by systematic steps to its conclusion. Under expert guidance the pupils must go somewhither and get somewhere. Theoretically a boy can spend an entire year on aeroplanes or wireless. But he must read and study scientific articles in his line and must show definite progress with his constructive work and in his scientific thinking. Does a visitor remark upon the apparent absence of the usual equipment in these laboratories? He is informed that there is little permanent apparatus because the children either bring in equipment or make it when needed. In every general science class there is a weekly "free" period in which pupils report upon any scientific topic of their choice; they are required to be ready to answer questions and to defend conclusions. At stated intervals each reports to his classmates the progress he has made both in his knowledge and in his construction of his own individual major project. Each pupil keeps an elaborate individual notebook with full records of his experiments. Only a modicum of common activities is maintained through the use of a textbook and general experiments which the entire class performs.

#### CORRELATING THE ACTIVITIES OF VARIOUS CLASSROOMS

Apparent in the paragraphs immediately preceding is a second general instructional principle running through Grades VII, VIII, and IX; it is the endeavor to correlate the activities of various subjects. On this order is the carry-over from designing rooms to shops and domestic science rooms. In a box-making course of the industrial arts department, a store is maintained which sells all materials by a regular plan of exchange through the use of paper money. Each child keeps her own accounts; representatives make out individual bills and prepare formal statements for the board of education. When the school prepares a pageant, English classes write the lines; music classes provide the music; drawing classes make plans for the scenes; designing and sewing classes construct the costumes; manual arts classes take charge of lighting and staging. A less pretentious illustration of correlation is seen in

classes of stenography, in which the lesson is preceded by a brief lesson in English.

Even in traditional subjects like English and civics instruction is vitally of present-day current interests. Topical recitations observed in one ninth-grade civics class included spirited discussion upon the quarantine in New York, President Harding's tariff program, the destruction of a large grain elevator in Chicago, and Secretary Hughes and the Supreme Court Justiceship. A seventh-grade geography class, having visited in a body an exhibit prepared by a class in a neighboring normal school, was displaying with great pride an elaborate exhibit of South American products, arranged by countries. For the exhibit in behalf of each of the countries one or more children had been responsible through weeks of preparation. Utility, correlation, publicity, and permanence are four motivating forces which predominate in all the instructional work of the middle schools.

The two principles of instruction—work motivated by the play value and the utility value of the product, either or both—and correlation of activities in various school endeavors apparently are Montclair's major answers to the problem of saving the lost upper-grade years. In fact, individual initiative in constructive workmanship, on the part of teachers and pupils working together in laboratories rather than recitation rooms, is the keynote of these junior high schools. The constant endeavor is to create life-contacts in all subjects. Good teaching of traditional subjects filled with fresh and interesting content is the goal set for Grades VII, VIII, and IX. An outstanding feature is attention to the individual pupil in strictly school tasks, while maintaining a social solidarity in school organization, recreations, and other social events.

#### THE CURRICULUM

Emphasis has been put upon good teaching embodying the two principles named, because the observer witnesses a curriculum which on paper is distinctly conservative. It is fair to say that the conservatism named is largely nominal rather than real. The courses are rich in content; modern languages are taught by the direct method; mathematics combines arithmetic with algebra and

geometry; the social sciences are stressed; and in all departments materials of instruction are modified to suit the capacities of groups of varying abilities.

The seventh or "tryout" year has the following constants: English 5, arithmetic 5, geography with history 5, physical training, hygiene, recreation 5, practical arts 5, the first semester in wood, the second in metal, and music 1. Electives occupy from 4 to 6 periods, including extra English 4, foreign language 4, and extra practical arts 2. The amount and quality of electives taken by the individual pupil depend upon achievement tests and ability grouping as described below, effected at the end of the sixth grade.

The differentiation of courses provided in the seventh grade for children who take a foreign language, as contrasted with those who take extra English, greatly assists in separating the brighter from the duller pupils in the ability grouping to be described. An almost invariable rule, to which exceptions are made only in extreme cases, is that a pupil's English must be reasonably good if he is to be allowed to elect a foreign language. Almost invariably those who take extra English in the two lower years enter the commercial or industrial electives of the ninth grade, while the foreign language pupils enter the academic electives of the final year.

The eighth, or "settlement" year, has the same constants and the same electives as the seventh, except that the social science work now is called American history and civics, while in practical arts either wood or metal-work may be elected in the first semester, with printing in the second.

The ninth, or "advance," year differentiates into three curricula:

#### NINTH YEAR

ACADEMIC		COMMERCIAL		INDUSTRIAL	
	Periods Weekly		Periods Weekly		Periods Weekly
English	5	English	5	English	5
Algebra	5	Bookkeeping	5	Applied mathematics	5
Civics	5	Civics	5	Civics	5
Physical training	3	Physical training	3	Physical training	3
Music	1	Music	1	Practical arts	4
	—		—	Drawing, mechanical	
	19		19	and free hand	2
				Music	1
					25

Elect not more than eight periods*		Elect not more than eight periods		Elect not more than five periods	
Latin (begun or continued)	5 or 3	Stenography and typing	5	General science	5
French (begun or continued)	5 or 3	General science	5	Practical arts	4
General science	5	French (begun or continued)	5 or 3	French (begun or continued)	5 or 3
Practical arts	4	Practical arts	4		
Drawing	2	Drawing	2		

\*Latin is required in the A.B. degree in college; it is not a requirement of the technical or scientific colleges.

In the ninth grade, practical arts, which is entirely elective, is chosen by about 25 per cent of the pupils, who take either manual arts or domestic science after the required work of the seventh and eighth years. Boys concentrate for the year in wood-, metal-, or printing-work as they elect; girls exercise similar choice among various branches of domestic science, carrying on their activities in separate model houses.

#### ABILITY GROUPING

To sixth-grade classes in several elementary schools, which will constitute the seventh grade of the Hillside school, are given general intelligence tests and achievement tests in reading, spelling, and arithmetic. The results of these tests determine the first rough classification of the seventh grade into ability groups. Shortly after the seventh-grade classes are organized, the junior high school evaluates its preliminary classification by means of the Terman Group Tests, the Haggerty Intelligence Tests, and the Stanford Revision of Binet-Simon Scale. The individual test is given to pupils who have ranked very high or very low in the group tests, or upon request of the teacher to whom a pupil is assigned. After a reasonable period of experimentation, the classes are rearranged to provide for approximate uniformity, thus utilizing teachers' judgments in addition to the objective data of tests. The practical working out of ability grouping may be seen from an example. The tests given to sixty pupils assigned two to a higher grade; seven to a higher section of the same grade; five to a lower section of the same grade; and demoted two to the sixth grade.



Schedules were rearranged for six to give them more practical arts and less academic work; six were assigned to special classes.

#### INDIVIDUAL DIAGNOSIS

Examples of individual diagnosis indicate how troublesome pupils are treated. A ninth-grade girl was failing in Latin, French, and algebra. Her mother requested that she be tested. Her physical age was fifteen and one-half years, her mental age seventeen and one-half, her Intelligence Quotient 114. Her failure was apparently due to excessive shyness. When her teachers explained her superior native ability, she began to work with the spirit: "I can do this; therefore, I must." Her French and Latin rose from E to B. A seventh-grade boy failing in all his subjects showed physical age thirteen and one-half, mental age thirteen, and Intelligence Quotient 95. He had not become adjusted in the larger school with its departmental work. He was left in the seventh grade and placed for all his work in the care of one teacher. A girl rated in seventh grade as of average ability was receiving fair marks, but not doing well enough to please her parents. Upon their request she was tested, found to rate in physical age twelve and one-half, mental age fifteen and two-thirds, and Intelligence Quotient 127. She was advanced a grade in English and in mathematics, and was allowed to substitute history for geography. By similar adjustments she will complete the junior grades in two years. At midyears in the eighth grade she was receiving higher marks than she ever received in the sixth or seventh grade.

These examples serve to indicate how special cases, of either high or low ability, are diagnosed and adjusted in their school tasks in order that they may progress at their maximum, while receiving the instruction which seems best suited for their personal interests and attainments. No subnormal classes belong to the Hillside school, although one class of subnormal girls about sixteen years of age is housed in the building, doing sixth-grade work in charge of a teacher from the adjoining elementary school. This is strictly a non-departmental class, in charge of one especially able teacher, for all subjects except manual training and physical culture. Similar classes are organized for the very slowest pupils

in the seventh and eighth grades. In 1921-22 an attempt is to be made to organize in the seventh grade one class of the extra English group who have the greatest capacity. Pupils showing exceptional capacity in the ninth grade, by taking extra work, may gain enough credits to meet the senior high school requirements in two years. It should be added that a comprehensive plan of promotion by subjects allows all especially bright pupils in any grade to advance as rapidly as they are able.

#### STUDENT CONTROL AND DISCIPLINE

No feature of this school system is more impressive to a visitor than the deportment of the pupils. Especially noticeable are the excellent results in the senior and junior high schools of the central building. Upon the principle "maximum freedom with orderliness," playground, halls, and classrooms are characterized by the absence of obstructive formal regulations. Except for fire drills there are no rigid "passing" rules; children move quietly but freely through the corridors, having caught the spirit of freedom under self-direction, and manifest apparent pleasure in maintaining the dignity of their school city. Not once, but five times during a half-day in this building, the writer was offered courteous and pleasing attention, not by student officers, but by pupils whom he casually met in the hall.

The central school has for the junior grades a student council of ten, nominated and elected by the pupils. All of them sit on the platform with the principal during assembly periods, the president presiding in all but devotional exercises. Five committees complete the organization: a Home and Grounds Committee, an Assembly Committee, a Civics Committee for patriotic days, color guard, and the like, a Business Committee for social functions, and a Session-Room Committee for each home room. The student council, in company with the principal, visits other schools in Montclair and in neighboring cities.

The Hillside school has a similar student council with standing committees, each committee sponsored by a faculty adviser. Rotary membership insures for a large number of children training in civic leadership. Change of membership takes place every

month, with semiannual change of superior officers as well as of faculty advisers. A pupil who violates any rule of the school, or is discourteous, is reported to his room-teacher. A second offense brings a summons to appear before the appropriate committee, or even before the council. Grave offenses are dealt with by the principal. Student control extends to the classroom, the group officers assuming charge in the absence of the teacher. The principal testifies that the training involved in this form of social control develops in the pupils initiative, leadership, and, as one pupil aptly said, in "followship."

#### PHYSICAL TRAINING, HEALTH, HYGIENE, RECREATION

The New Jersey law requires health activities three times a week for every child from kindergarten to college, and insists that this is the only subject that must be passed for promotion. To physical training every other subject must yield if necessary. Moreover, by state law, classes must meet regularly as units three times a week and must not be mixed. While the actual administration of this stringent requirement must be very lax in many communities, Montclair apparently is living up to it in both letter and spirit. The director of physical training in charge of health and hygiene sees to it that the gymnasiums are occupied practically all the time under competent instruction, in group games, setting-up exercises, and calisthenics; all is supplemented by elaborate provisions for out-of-door sports, games, and various forms of supervised play. It is impossible to describe in detail the elaborate system of interclass competitions in which girls compete in drills and dances, and boys in games. There are separate gymnastic meets for girls of the junior high schools, and regularly scheduled games in captain-ball, volley-ball, indoor baseball, field hockey, tennis, and the like.

The year 1920 brought about the organization of a city physical training department with a single director for all agencies making for the physical well-being of the children. The director supervises all physical training teachers, school physicians, and nurses; and he also supervises all athletics. Recreation clubs are organized in every building, one each for boys and for girls. Faculty

supervisors for these clubs are allowed a moderate addition to their salary. The clubs meet weekly, immediately after the close of school.

A special campaign against malnutrition, recently described at length by the superintendent,<sup>1</sup> singled out every child in the schools who was more than 7 per cent underweight; from 21 to 33 per cent in the various schools fell in this classification, about 1,200 out of a total enrolment of 5,000 children. In every classroom a large chart gave publicity to the needs of all pupils, with gold stars for normal weight, red stars for underweight, and blue for overweight. Each pupil was given a corresponding star for his report card. The motto was a gold star for every child in Montclair. Results were gratifying. The maximum change for the better in one school was from 25 per cent underweight to 9 per cent.

In all respects, as in the health program, the three junior high schools of Montclair appear to be intimately articulated with the lower grades and with the senior school. In fact, a visitor carries away the impression that these junior schools are far more interested in enriching the educational experiences of their pupils than they are in establishing a name and place for themselves as distinct units in this city system. Working with nothing very elaborate or unique in the way of equipment, they stress decidedly the exploration of children's tastes and capacities, endeavoring in every subject to give instruction which may be called individualized.

<sup>1</sup> D. C. Bliss, "Malnutrition, a School Problem," *Elementary School Journal*, XXI (March, 1921), 515-21.

## KEEPING THE SCORE

ARTHUR L. CAMPBELL

Commercial High School, New Haven, Connecticut

Why do we mark pupils at all? What could have prompted the first teacher to start a marking system? Was it through a desire to stimulate the pupils through emulation to stronger effort? Or could it have been through a desire to record individual shortcomings and so enable the teacher to modify his instruction accordingly?

From a superficial consideration, one would say that both the reasons suggested lie at the bottom of our present-day marking systems. Of the first, certainly there is no doubt. The average boy or girl of high-school age, living in the future as adolescents always do, incapable of associating future station in life with present necessary preparation, must be artificially stimulated to put forth sufficient effort to make this preparation. Hence the class book and the monthly report card. That our marking systems of today are fraught with innumerable weaknesses and inconsistencies, their most loyal adherents cannot deny; on the other hand, that they do serve as a spur to the laggard, even their most outspoken opponents must admit.

But with reference to the second *raison d'être*, the question arises, just how much do our marking systems function in controlling instruction? Does the regulation class book, ruled off into four weeks of five days each, with just space enough for a scale letter or numeral, enable the teacher to find out specifically the weak points of a given pupil? In practice, the ordinary marking system simply registers relative standing with respect to other pupils in the class. It can be said to give, at most, a general diagnosis of the pupils' relative condition; it certainly does not furnish a prescription for the teacher to follow. It is here that our marking systems break down; they do not provide for treatment.

There must be, then, a third and more valid reason for maintaining marking systems. The patrons of the school, employers, and citizens at large are more intimately concerned with marking systems than they themselves or school administrators and teachers realize. The monthly report, yearly report, or graduation diploma stands for the presence or the absence of qualities necessary for the preservation and well-being of society in general. Diplomas are hallmarks of excellence like the chemical manufacturer's "C.P." guaranty. School records can rightly be put in the category of "books" as the accountant uses the term. They must, if they are to serve these purposes properly, be kept according to some uniform system intelligible to the people most vitally interested—the public. Public schools are institutions maintained by the public; here the public is supposedly trained to meet the demands of practical life. The public, as stockholders, if not having access to the books themselves, should be furnished at least an intelligible balance sheet setting forth specifically the condition of the business from time to time, and these balance sheets should be in terms which set forth clearly the amount and quality of the finished product compared with the raw material. The preferred stockholders—the fathers and mothers—should receive periodically special reports with respect to raw material, processes, and results. Furthermore, marks should be so clear in their meaning to the employing public that when a pupil enters the ranks as a workman his employer may know definitely the kind of work and the amount which can reasonably be expected. If marking were done on a more human basis, our high-stand pupils would always be the high-stand men and women of the world of affairs. There would be no school dullards of the Scott, Irving, Watts, and Darwin type, later to be recognized as world-renowned savants and geniuses.

There is at the present time a remarkable lack of agreement between school-placed estimates and society-placed estimates as to the worth of a given pupil. Society gauges him by what he does, by his reactions to environment. The school, on the contrary, registers its approval or disapproval according to what he knows, how much he has conned from the printed page or taken in by means of his ear. What can be the reason for these two so wholly diver-

gent views? Logically, it would seem that there can be but three factors entering in the problem: (1) what is taught (the curriculum), (2) who teaches it (the teacher), and (3) how the results are measured (the marking system). In this paper only the third will be considered.

It is clear now that a large proportion of the misunderstanding that exists between the school and the public results from inadequate marking systems. The faults of these systems are many, but their most obvious ones are their indefiniteness, their lack of scope, and the absence of guiding principles or goals to be attained.

There is nothing at all definite about our marking systems. Let us take an illustrative case—*time*: dismissal hour on report day; *place*: the teacher's home room; *dramatis personae*: the teacher, tired and worn, holding at bay a circle of twenty-five disgruntled pupils. Taken one at a time, the boldest would be docility itself; but, in a pack, even the meek and timid Bobby Jones becomes emboldened.

What is the trouble? Scores have been given out, and nobody knows the rules of the game, not even the "umpire" with all his array of figures so meticulously entered in his class book. What do figures have to do with a subject like English or history? The teachers themselves do not know what they mean. You look into your class book and find that on the eighth day of the month Smith left the class with two units' worth of English to his credit, while Brown received nine units' worth. But does Smith know, does Brown know, does the teacher know what constitutes a unit? Certainly not; the system is absolutely arbitrary. A numeral opposite a name means nothing intrinsically; it merely signifies a sort of relativity. Since the system is altogether artificial, the results cannot possibly be accepted as trustworthy. Nobody has a keener appreciation of this fact than that large body of conscientious teachers who often change marks, derived through that specious but illusory mathematical process—the law of averages—to figures that coincide with their general sense of values. This is nothing more than an attempt to humanize the system, even though resort is confessedly made to that science-tabooed device—the guess.



Our marking systems are painfully lacking in scope. The letter and numeral systems for valuing daily recitations apparently take into consideration only one thing—knowledge, irrespective of the way this knowledge may have been attained or the manner in which it is presented. They ignore absolutely such fundamental socializing characteristics as regard for the rights of others, care of public property, respect for law and order, and reverence for the sacred. In grammar schools in general and commercial high schools in particular there are scores of activities, only incidentally related to the learning process so called, that should be taken into consideration in making up the pupil's rating. Such gauging data as general attitude toward work, care of books and materials, general neatness, and undirected effort at personal improvement are most significant.

"Pupils are marked," says Superintendent Martin of Norristown, Pennsylvania, "too much on matter, and not enough on manner. . . . The important function of real education continues to be training in correct methods of thought. The important concerns of the individual are his reactions to his environments, and these reactions are determined by his rationalism."<sup>1</sup> "It is what our pupils do that counts, not what they know," says William Chandler Bagley. "Knowledge is of the utmost importance, but is important only as a means to an end, and that end is conduct."

There ought to be some consideration of personal traits. Apparently this need is coming to be recognized in some quarters. A personal rating system has just been adopted at Dartmouth, according to reports from Hanover. This new system recognizes that scholarship is not the only criterion of a student's ability to cope with the manifold problems of the outer world. Each man is given a general examination in personality, intelligence, responsibility, and aggressiveness, and is rated accordingly. Every student is given a rating by each of his instructors. The results are remarkable in their agreement.

Though there are a few pleas for reform and a few examples of change, very little has been done in most schools toward improving

<sup>1</sup> A. S. Martin, "How to Study," *Education*, XL (December, 1919), 250.

the marking system. Doubtless one reason for this is the stubborn refusal on the part of a not inconsiderable number of educators to accept the unpleasant fact that most boys and girls work solely for marks. The practical teacher accepts this as a matter of course. What a power for good, then, is placed in the teacher's hands! If the young are so prone toward working for marks, the logical course to follow would be to take this as a cue and make the most of it. The young work for the tangible, for immediate results; hence the need for marking systems. Then let us see to it that they are given something worth working for, and mark them accordingly. Let us place the emphasis on broad, socializing principles, practical codes of behavior, and on simple, clearly outlined ideals that fall within the range of juvenile comprehension. With proper attitudes developed in the present generation, we need not fear for the welfare of the succeeding one. Departmentalization, with all its good points, is woefully lacking in one respect; it does not provide the pupil with one particular teacher who is personally interested and feels individually responsible for that pupil's conduct in general and his attitude toward life.

The third outstanding fault of present-day marking systems is their absence of guiding principles, objectives, and goals. It is immaterial here whether the blame for this rests on the individual teacher or on administrative bodies higher up; the fact is that our systems are unbelievably blind and purposeless. They are hopelessly antiquated; they are in a state of retardation, not having kept pace with the general march of educational ideas. The entire scheme is accepted on the part of most principals and teachers as a sort of clumsy makeshift because there is nothing better.

Marking systems can function properly only where they are used in connection with clearly conceived educational policies. As S. E. Davis has said:

Reduced to its lowest terms, education has often been said to consist of ideals and attitudes, habits, and knowledge. . . . Complete self-respect, enthusiasm for generous or noble conduct in friend or foe, "large" ways of considering affairs—these as ideals are a vital part of what the school should give. The direction one is going is of more importance than his speed or knowledge of the road. Yet in spite of their fundamental value, ideals and attitudes are very difficult to reduce to any standard of measurement.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> S. E. Davis, *The Work of the Teacher*, p. 257.

Superintendents and principals would do well not to employ teachers until they have first received signed statements clearly setting forth their educational views. Church boards and political machines seem to be about the only organizations that are right on this matter. Charles Francis Adams in his autobiography brings a bitter arraignment against the educational system, or lack of system, of his day when he says, "I should now respect myself a great deal more if I had then rebelled and run away from home, to sea, or to the devil."

There is still another fault to be pointed out. Marking systems now in force are perennial sources of irritation between pupil and pupil, and between pupil and teacher. They breed distrust, jealousy, dishonesty, to say nothing of superficiality and countless other similarly diseased excrescences. Furthermore, in extreme cases they make intolerable despots of the teachers and open rebels of the pupils.

Encountering all these faults, and unable to place any confidence in the system, teachers adopt some sort of haphazard device that will palliate their professional consciences, though falling far short of satisfying their sense of moral obligation to the pupil in particular and society in general.

One possible remedy for all this may come through the introduction of an open system of marking, with the modern duplicating feature, such as is used in salesbooks, bank deposit books, repair-job slips, laundry tickets, and other similar business devices. Modern business is built on confidence. Duplicating systems engender confidence and, for this reason, are indispensable in modern business. Fear and distrust of the dark are biologically as old as life itself. The manufacturer knows this and gives us open bathtubs instead of the old built-in ones, visible typewriters instead of the invisible, glass-front stoves, and daylight developing machines for our snapshots. In a word, the whole tendency is to relieve the everyday life processes of the hidden and secretive, to work in the open, to do things above board. But how is it in the schools? Why all this secrecy about the process by which marks are obtained, as though they were derived by the teacher through the performance of certain mystic rites, the witnessing of which on the part of the pupil would be profanation of the grossest sort?

Hands go up in consternation at the suggestion that a duplicating system be applied to school work. There are visions of carbon sheets and receipts which are torn out after each recitation and given to the pupil as a check on the probity of the teacher against report day; of the teacher lost in a maze of records, with no time left for teaching; of the pupil now raised to the teacher's level in his capacity as a fellow business transactor. It is needless to follow farther this familiar course of reasoning. The ultra-conservative always see dire calamity at the end of every new path, and, accordingly, a duplicate system of marking, in which one record is kept by the teacher and its tally by the pupil, is thought of as leading surely to utter disregard for authority and ultimately to rank bolshevism.

But the proposed plan has been tried, and with gratifying results. The writer is using a system which consists of cards providing for the name and class number of the pupil, together with a list of characteristics sufficiently broad, and at the same time definite enough, for recording both the strong and weak points of each pupil. The list falls into three main heads: (a) personality, (b) attitude, and (c) everyday life qualifications (business). Personality is subdivided into posture, appearance, and voice. Attitude falls under three subheads: (1) toward teacher (loyalty), (2) toward fellow-pupils, and (3) toward work. Numbers 1 and 2 are given places on the card with the hope of determining early in the pupil's life what his attitude toward his employer and his fellow-workers will be. Number 3 is again subdivided into oral recitation (with respect to both facts and the presentation of these facts), written recitation (with respect to both facts and presentation), spelling, punctuation, diction, reasoning, month's test (with respect to both facts and presentation), and home work. The following are the twelve everyday life or business qualifications referred to: courtesy, honesty, punctuality, accuracy, neatness, speed, system, heedfulness, originality, initiative, articulation, and pronunciation.

In order to facilitate the making of this record, as was indicated, a card is provided, on the face of which are all of the items mentioned in the foregoing paragraph. The reverse of the card gives

directions for making the records and is reproduced in full as follows:

Parent's name.....  
 Parent's business address.....  
 Pupil's home address.....  
 Telephone No.....  
 Home room No.....Teacher.....  
 Are you a tuition pupil?.....  
 Do you work?.....At what?.....  
 No. of hours spent at work per week.....  
 What are you most interested in?.....

#### INSTRUCTIONS

The purpose of the School Score Card is to bring out the best in the pupil by marking him on those things only which have a direct bearing on life and its problems, to gain his confidence and co-operation by appealing to his sense of fairness, to teach him how to place a correct estimate upon himself.

*How to use the card.*—The score card is an automatic device by which the pupil can figure his standing each day in the school month. Each plus (+) counts 10; each neutral (−), 5; each minus (−), 2; and each bar (1), 0. To determine one's mark on a given day, it is only necessary to total the plus, neutral, minus, and bar values and divide this number by the total number of marks registered on the card. For example, suppose the pupil, at the end of the month, finds that he has 35 plusses (350), 6 neutrals (30), 5 minuses (10), and 2 bars (0). These total 390.  $390 \div 48$  (total number of marks on card = 8.12, or 81.2 reduced to a percentage basis, the gross daily average for the month.

Before the net daily average mark for the month can be obtained, however, it is necessary to combine with the gross daily mark the written recitation mark. Multiply 81.2 by 20, the number of marking days in the month. This gives 1624. To this add whatever mark was made in the written recitation and divide by 21, if there were only one written recitation given, and if the written recitation covered two days' work, double the mark, add it to 1624, and divide by 22, etc. Should there be more than one written recitation mark to consider, the same process is used, it being borne in mind that the mark on the written recitation paper must be multiplied by the number of days covered by the paper, and each day covered counts one to be added to the number of marking days in the month.

The following shows a pupil's score worked out for the month:

$+= 10 \times 35 = 350$  value of total number of plusses for month  
 $\sim = 5 \times 6 = 30$  value of total number of neutrals for month  
 $- = 2 \times 5 = 10$  value of total number of minuses for month  
 $\_ = 0 \times 2 = 0$  value of total number of bars for month

48 ) 390	(81.2 × 20, number marking days =	1624
<hr/>		
1st written record = 75 × 3 (number days' work covered) =		225
2d written record = 60 × 2 (number days' work covered) =		120
3d written record = 80 × 1 (number days' work covered) =		80
		<hr/>
2049 ÷ 26 = 78.4, the net daily average for the month		2049
		<hr/>
		2
		<hr/>
		156.8
		<hr/>
		75.0 = mark received on monthly test
		<hr/>
3) 231.8 (77.2 = pupil's mark for the month		

The cards are kept in duplicate, one by the teacher and one by the pupil. The teacher is, *ex officio*, the "umpire"; the class leader is the scorekeeper. When the recitation starts, the teacher hands over to the class leader all the cards, arranged numerically with respect to the individual numbers of the pupils. A pupil then rises to recite, calls out his number, and proceeds with his recitation, after which the teacher calls off his score. This is entered by the class leader on the official card and, at the same time, by the pupil on his own card, which he always keeps in a paper pocket in his assignment book. The next pupil called upon tries, naturally enough, to avoid the pitfalls into which the preceding fell. In this way the recitation improves progressively as the hour advances. If it is so desired, the teacher may enter the marks on the official cards. To have this done by a trustworthy student, however, not only gives the teacher a free hand for carrying on the instruction, but at the same time secures the confidence of the students, by selecting one of their number to record the scores.

Care should be taken to make certain concessions to the first two reciters, for the simple reason that they must lead the way for the others. It will be found a good plan to use a special ink, green or violet, giving a certain air of "officialdom" to the system, which the pupils welcome. Scorekeeping should never be permitted to

become merely a mechanical process. There are times when the spirit of the recitation is at such white heat that it would be better not to give scores at all. Pupils should be scored each day regularly, however, upon the character of their home work and the promptness with which they bring it in. The possibility of getting at least two plusses every day insures them of a reserve, so that when a minus is registered they are not altogether insolvent.

There is one feature of this system that commends itself most heartily to all the pupils—its revised up-to-the-minute character. By means of the card the pupils are able to figure out their own scores for any day in the school month. They not only know how far they are falling below the required passing mark, but they know specifically in what they are falling short. When they do fail, they know that the fault is none other than their own, and that there is no possible chance of “talking teacher into changing the mark.” The result is that only the best feeling exists between teacher and pupil. In a word, the entire system is designed after the plan of the sport score card, in which everything is done above board; players, umpire, and spectators all know the rules of the game, and the results are measured to the satisfaction of all.

There will never be any headway made in our marking systems until they are established upon a more human basis. The prevalent “gorging regurgitating” process should be relegated to that limbo to which ages ago were consigned the abandoned conceits of the Schoolmen. The pupils must be taken into the teacher’s full confidence. They must know that, after all, the marking system is nothing more than a debit-credit process, interpreted through symbols which are thoroughly familiar to both teacher and pupil.

Teach the pupils how to read their scores, and they will play not only a more interesting, but at the same time a more profitable, game.



## CURRENT CONCEPTIONS OF THE SPECIAL PURPOSES OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

LEONARD V. KOOS  
University of Minnesota

### CANVASSING FOR THE PURPOSES

Many who take thought for the first time of the function of the junior college are inclined to look upon this new unit in the school system solely as a sort of isthmus connecting the mainland of elementary and secondary education with the peninsula of professional and advanced academic training. A canvass of the special purposes of this recent addition to our educational institutions shows, on the other hand, that many of its friends expect much more of it than that it shall be a mere "neck of land between two larger bodies of land." In large part these friends of the junior college look upon it as an institution with a function far wider than that just described, affecting much larger proportions of the population and influencing profoundly the organization of education on levels above and below.

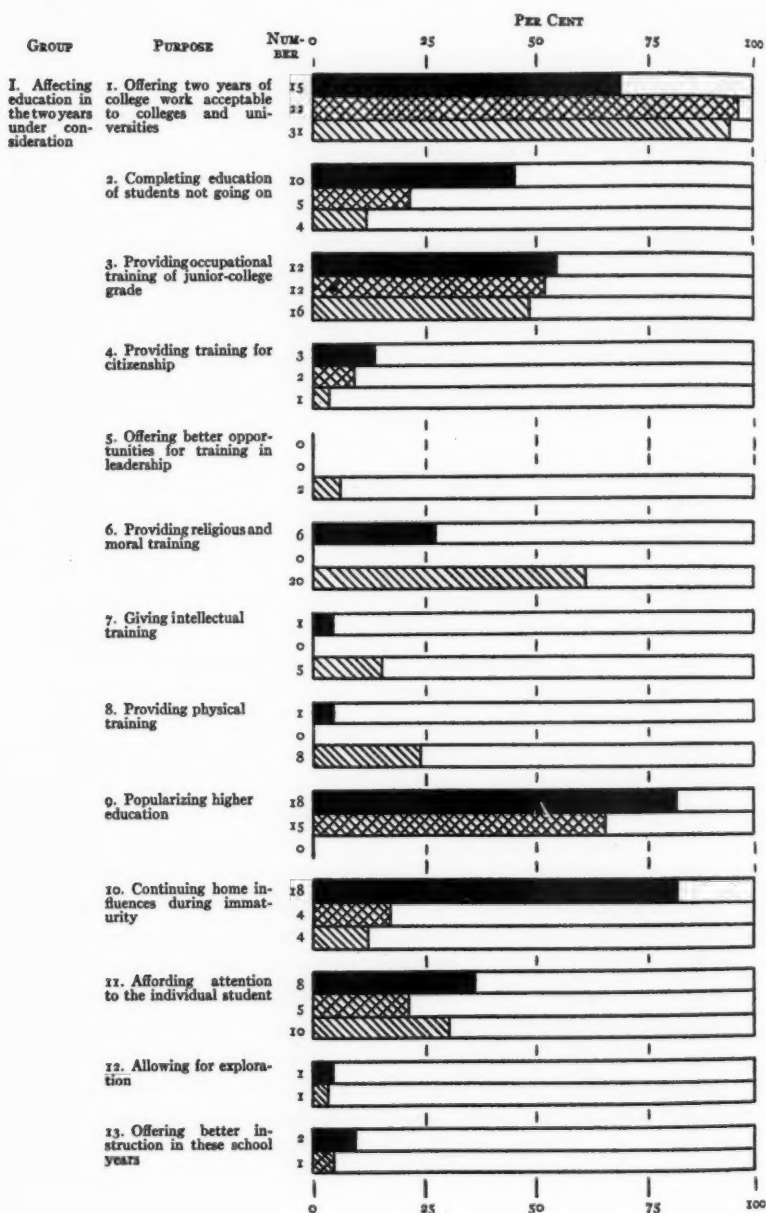
What is presented in this paper touching the special purposes of the junior college has been compiled from an analysis of a wide variety of materials. Among these materials were, first, twenty-two articles and addresses published in educational periodicals, or, in a few instances, as parts of volumes. This part of the investigation does not include all such material that has made its appearance, but all that was available to the writer at the time the compilation was made. Most of the statements used appeared in print within the last decade. Among those whose contributions to the literature on the junior college were used are Angell, Bolton, J. Stanley Brown, Claxton, Coursault, Harper, Hill, Judd, Lange, Vincent, and Zueblin, not to mention a number of others. The materials used may be assumed to be more or less complete statements of the writers' conceptions of the meaning of this new movement.

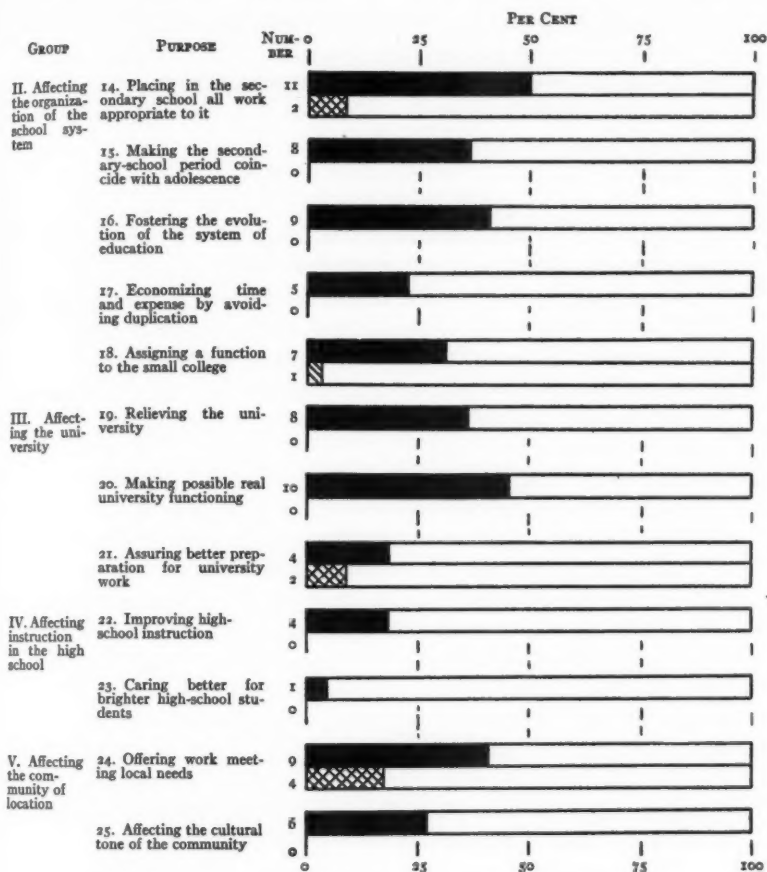
A second body of materials was collected from the catalogues or bulletins issued by the junior colleges now in operation, in so far as these were supplied to the writer upon request directed to the head of each school reported by the Bureau of Education as maintaining a junior college. For the most part, these catalogues were issued for the school year 1920-21, but in a few instances bulletins published a year or two earlier were used. The total number of institutions represented is fifty-six, twenty-three being public and thirty-three private. Four of the public institutions are established in normal schools, and three more are state institutions of junior-college grade. The remainder are junior colleges maintained in connection with city, union-district, township, or county high schools. Of the private junior colleges, seventeen are in southern states and sixteen in other states.

The term "special purposes" as here used nowhere appears in the materials entering into the compilation. Classified here as special purposes are the statements of articles and bulletins designated as the "advantages of," "opportunities of," "values of," "arguments for," etc., the junior college. As may be seen from the following explanation, such statements as made, indicating as they do the aspirations entertained for the junior college by its friends, are readily transmutable into "special purposes."

The accompanying combined table and chart shows twenty-five more or less distinct purposes. The original distribution contained almost fifty, but a careful consideration of meanings reduced the number approximately one-half. These figures alone indicate a wide variety of functions expected of the junior college, an indication which is emphasized by a cursory examination of the purposes themselves, or of the groups under which they have been classified.

Before proceeding to the elucidation of each special purpose, mention should be made of some difficulties met with in the attempts at classification. In studies of this sort, meanings shade into one another almost imperceptibly; one cannot be certain that violence has not sometimes been done by placing a particular statement under some particular category, thus to some extent misrepresenting the meaning intended by the author. It is also at





Special purposes of the junior college and the numbers and percentages of statements recognizing them. (Black, in the literature; cross-hatching, in public junior-college catalogues; single-hatching, in private junior-college catalogues.)

times impossible to take account of all interrelationships of purpose expressed or implied. These difficulties will become more apparent as the reader proceeds. Such minor difficulties, however, cannot appreciably affect the general conclusions of this study, since the larger meanings stand out unequivocally.

#### THE PURPOSES FOUND

*Group I: Purposes affecting especially the two years under consideration.*—The first function appearing in the combined table and chart—offering two years of work acceptable to colleges and universities—is seen to be the one most commonly put forward in all the materials excepting the literature. This is the purpose which looks to the interests of students planning to go on into the higher levels of training—the isthmian function already referred to. From this emphasis we may anticipate that this function will be more certain of performance than any of those following in the list. An examination of courses now offered bears out this expectation.

Purposes 2 and 3 are among those which would make it possible for the junior college to serve the interests of those “not going on.” The former urges for such students the provision of opportunities for “rounding out their general education,” opportunities which are not given if the work offered is only that regarded as preliminary to some form of advanced training. Those who have been interpreted as subscribing to this purpose are inclined to assume that, for the student who is not going on, education would be left at loose ends if he concluded his training with work suited to the first purpose. It is worth noting that the college catalogues do not posit this purpose as frequently as does the literature.

The third purpose refers to preparation for occupations, the final training for which would be given during junior-college years. If occupations for which the final training can be completed during what are commonly accepted as secondary-school years are classified as trades, and if those for which such training can be completed only with four or more years of work beyond the high-school are classified as professions, what is advocated in Purpose 3 is training for *semi-professions*. Whenever the fields in which such training is to fall are named by the first two groups they are called agriculture,

industry, home economics, and commerce. Teaching is the sole occupation named in the catalogues of private junior colleges. The usual statements in these catalogues, which come from private junior colleges in Missouri and the southern states, are to the effect that the state departments grant certificates to teach upon the completion of some or all of the work of the two years, if the candidate includes courses in education.

The purposes numbered 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 are hardly in the nature of special purposes; instead, they are clearly general purposes of education that must be characteristic of all schools, irrespective of the level of training offered. They can certainly be no less pertinent for elementary and secondary education, or even for education beyond the junior college. It is not unlikely that their general nature explains their infrequent recognition in the literature and the catalogues examined, their application to the junior-college level being taken for granted.

The meaning of the purposes whose numbers have just been indicated is sufficiently apparent to obviate the necessity of much in the way of explanatory statements. Purpose 5, proposed in a very few catalogues, seems to be put forward by those who feel that the small college, with its smaller enrolment than that of the large university, gives to all students better opportunities for experiences that constitute "laboratory work" in leadership. Although the statements classified under Purpose 6 vary widely, the most common claim bears upon "training for Christian character." A few mention the advantage of segregation. The catalogues of the colleges of Missouri and of the southern states include these statements more frequently than others. Purpose 8 is emphasized especially in those institutions which have recently had gymnasiums or swimming pools added to their equipment.

Under Purpose 9, popularizing higher education, have been classified statements bearing on the lowering of the cost of such education or bringing it nearer the home of the student. These have been generalized in this way because cost and proximity are to be regarded as factors very influential in determining the proportions of the population who will avail themselves of higher educational opportunities. It is significant to note that although

this function is recognized in large proportions of the literature and of the catalogues of public junior colleges, it is left unmentioned in the catalogues of private institutions. It is not difficult to see vital relationships between this purpose and the second and third, especially in view of the greater range in interests and mentality that must come to be represented in the larger proportion of the population that will be enrolled in these years of higher education if the junior-college plan is at all commonly introduced.

Purpose 10, continuing home influences during immaturity, is proposed by a large proportion of those making the statements in educational literature, but in a much smaller proportion of the catalogues. Whenever put forward in catalogues of private junior colleges, Purpose 10 refers to influences which are *like* those of the home, rather than being those of the home itself. Some of the statements specifically take cognizance of the "critical period" represented by these years in the student's life, a period especially dangerous if he attends the larger universities where the fostering agencies are said not to be as well organized and administered as in the smaller institutions. Closely associated with this purpose and, indeed, at times scarcely to be distinguished from it, are those grouped under Purpose 11 which emphasize what may be termed the social control of the individual in small groups. The other aspect of attention to the individual student—the predominant one—concerns individual attention during instruction owing to the smaller classes. Frequently mentioned is the fact that such attention cannot be afforded in the larger schools.

The last two purposes in Group I, allowing for exploration and offering better instruction in these school years, are not often named, either in the literature or in the catalogues. In the few instances in which Purpose 12 is recognized it refers to the opportunity given students to try their aptitude for higher education. The acceptance of the latter as a special purpose is justified by those who propose it on the ground that the best teachers of the secondary school are assigned to junior-college work, whereas the inferior teachers of the larger institutions often give instruction to Freshmen and Sophomores.

*Group II: Purposes affecting the organization of the school system.*  
—The chart makes clear that from this point forward the purposes



are not commonly recognized in the junior-college catalogues; they are put forward almost exclusively by those expressing themselves through the literature canvassed. It is to be expected that those who contributed to the literature would attempt more nearly complete statements of the functions of the new unit than would those who prepared the catalogues.

The four purposes, 14-17, while having something in common, are sufficiently distinct to justify their being separately listed. They all point toward the reorganization of the school system by urging the upward extension of the secondary school. Purpose 14 would accomplish this, maintain its adherents, by placing in the secondary school all work of secondary-school grade. Those who call attention to this advantage mention the fact that the high school in its upper years and the first two years of college or university have much of their curricula in common. Subjects like mathematics and the foreign languages are used as cases in point. Those who propose Purpose 15 complain that our four-year high school covers only a portion of the full period of adolescence and recommend that, in order to adapt the organization to the periods of change in the nature of youth, the secondary school must begin earlier and, at the other end, must include two additional school years. Purpose 16 stresses the historical fact that our public-school system has shown a consistent tendency to develop by extension at the top and that the next "logical" step in its evolution is the addition of the Freshman and Sophomore years of college. This purpose will be seen to have much in common with Purpose 9. Purpose 17 is not unlike the first purpose in this group (14), but emphasizes more especially the economy to be effected through the changes made.

The last purpose (18) in the group calls attention to the service performed for the smaller and weaker colleges by making a place for them in our system of education. The statements included here speak of the impracticability of the aspirations of many of these small colleges to become high-class four-year institutions, and stress the appropriateness of their becoming strong junior colleges in a system of which this two-year unit is an organic part.

*Group III: Purposes affecting the university.*—Purposes 19 and 20 are opposite aspects of the same situation. Statements classified

under the former argue that the organization of the junior college will remove many or all underclassmen from the university and will free the latter to a large extent from the obligation of carrying forward extension work on the Freshman and Sophomore level, whereas statements under Purpose 20 contend that, being thus freed from work on the lower level, the university will be in a position to function as a university, i.e., it may devote itself to work on the higher level. This release will react favorably upon the character of instruction and will tend to encourage research, one of the functions of a university which suffers from the overload of Freshman and Sophomore work. Those who propose Purpose 21 look to see an improvement in the preparation of students for university work, but they fail to mention the grounds for their hopes. These may be implicit in Purposes 11, 12, and 13.

*Group IV: Purposes affecting instruction in the high school.*—The expectation that the establishment of the junior college will affect high-school instruction favorably (Purpose 22) rests, in the minds of those who propose it, on the general fact that a higher unit of the educational system always exercises an influence on the standards of a lower unit where the two institutions are closely associated. The single recognition of Purpose 23 refers to the better opportunity of serving the interest of the more capable student who arrives at his fourth high-school year with less than four units of credit to earn for graduation. With junior-college work offered in the high school, he may progress without loss of time.

*Group V: Purposes affecting the community of location.*—Purpose 24 appears to be one of the not uncommon expectations, namely, that the junior college will be able to offer courses adapted to local needs, the particular needs whenever mentioned being vocational or social. The last purpose (25) anticipates that the establishment of a junior college will, in a manner, affect the level of cultural interests of the local community to a degree now manifest in many college towns throughout the country.

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE FINDINGS

As already intimated, this survey of the current conceptions of the special functions of the junior college reveals the fact that, although the first purpose in the minds of its advocates is the offer-

ing of two years of standard college work acceptable to higher institutions, the hopes entertained for it far exceed this original service. The ambitions entertained for this new institution comprehend types of training better suited to the needs of the increasing proportion of the population which the junior college is expected to attract, especially general and occupational types of training adapted to the needs of students who will not continue their education beyond the work of these two years. All these new types of training are to be provided under conditions which will foster, better than prevalent conditions can, the intellectual and social welfare of individual students. Advocates of the junior college anticipate that its general introduction will affect profoundly, but in constructive ways, the organization and functioning of our system of education: it will permit the consummation of the secondary school, will assure the small college an unquestionable function in the educational system, and will encourage the university to differentiate its activities from those of the lower schools, much of whose work it is now called upon to do. They also look for the junior college, through courses offered and through its cultural influences, to be highly serviceable to the community of location. Other hopes are entertained for the junior college, but these are the predominant ones.

These aspirations outline an ambitious program for the junior college, so ambitious indeed that the special purposes as catalogued cannot be accepted forthwith. However, these purposes furnish us a cross-section of the educational consciousness which has given rise to the movement, and they supply tentative criteria to be used in watching and guiding its development. Before they may be finally accepted we shall need a vast deal of investigation and decades of experimentation with the plan. The recency of the junior-college movement has not yet afforded the opportunities for much study and experience. Therefore, the special purposes summarized in this article must be subject to modification as our information and experiences accumulate.

## AN EXPERIMENT IN PUPIL SELF-GOVERNMENT

FRANK W. STAHL

Bowen High School, Chicago, Illinois

The editorial on "Student Self-Government" in the May, 1921, number of the *School Review* prompts me to write of a certain phase of this problem which we tried out in the Bowen High School. When I came to this high school in October, 1918, I found teachers in charge of all study-rooms. It was not a supervised study period in the sense that this term is used today; the teachers simply kept order and checked attendance. It seemed to me at the time, and seems so still, that that task is a good illustration of zero in occupations for a teacher. I felt that a large majority of high-school pupils might be trained to study unpoliced.

Accordingly, in September, 1920, we opened what we called a Senior study-room in a part of the library. It was to be unsupervised. The students were to study there on their own responsibility. I talked with them in detail of my plans and ideals and of what it would do for them in the way of training, responsibility, and self-control. I set the standard high, perhaps too high—silence, no talking—just what one finds in the library reading-room of the university or the public library downtown.

I did not make the mistake of starting the thing and then withdrawing my interest. I dropped in from time to time, not every day and not with any regularity. I tried to go into the room during each study period once or twice a week. I usually found a small group of two or three, sometimes more, talking; by far the greater number, however, intently studying. On a few occasions I found some boy rather boisterous. I removed such and put them into the supervised study-hall. I never found more than two or three of this type in a semester. I remember that two of these pupils whom I removed asked permission to return, stating that I would never find them disobeying the rules again. I allowed them to go back, and so far as I know they kept their word. The

students seemed to consider it a privilege and honor to be allowed to study in this manner.

I impressed upon them the fact that I held them responsible as a group for the conduct of their study hour, that I did not expect any single individual to come to me and complain about the delinquencies of any other individual, but that, as a group, if they felt that any one of their number was not playing fair, and if, after talking with him to no effect, they wished to bring the matter to me, as a committee, I would take up the matter and remove the offender. This procedure was never followed, and no offending pupil was ever reported to me by either an individual or a group.

On two different occasions pupils came to me and asked to be transferred to another study-room, stating that they could not study in this room on account of the noise. Two pupils in three and one-half semesters made this request. I found that the very best pupils, meaning those whose social attitude is right at all times, would suffer any interruption and annoyance in their study period and not take any steps toward reprimanding or removing the disturbers.

On the whole, I think I found the plan growing slowly in the right direction; yet I discontinued it in the middle of this semester, the fourth of the trial. Why? (1) I felt that the progress toward the ideal set was too slow; that is, the pupils, this semester, did very little better than those of the first semester. About three times in five when I dropped in I found a few people talking. (2) The pupils were not willing to assume the responsibility that goes with privilege. (3) I had a vague feeling that perhaps, as the editorial referred to stated, "Principals have not always recognized that high-school students cannot assume responsibility for their own conduct except after a long course of carefully controlled practice."

One of the fourth-year English teachers asked a class to write on the "Failure of the Senior Study." Perhaps a few of their comments would be interesting and enlightening. Some of the more pointed follow.

The plan of giving the Seniors a study in which the student must rely on his own sense of duty is an experiment in Bowen. I think that it should be

abolished for the three following reasons: it places too much responsibility on the individual; it is a form of nuisance to the principal; it is a beginning for other forms of freedom that the pupils are liable to take advantage of.

There are some students who will not, or cannot, study unless forced to do so. When left on their honor, they refuse to study and instead hold conversation with others.

Senior study-hall has failed because the students do not realize the importance of such a privilege, and because they have not been accustomed to such freedom.

Pupils are inclined to sit near their friends, thus increasing the temptation to talk and waste time. They have not yet learned to employ themselves profitably when under no restraint.

Before this plan can be successful the Seniors must observe three things: they should have consideration for others; they should practice self-control; and they should always come to study prepared to work.

Enough evidence has been given to show that the pupils themselves consider the experiment a failure. As these papers were written before I made the final decision to discontinue the plan, the attitude of the pupils ought probably to be given as the fourth and perhaps the best reason for the step which I took.

Why did the plan fail? Doesn't it seem that pupils who, for the most part, have been eleven years in the public school should have secured the self-control and ability to take the attitude toward questions of fair play and honesty that would enable them to carry out successfully a plan of importance to their school as a social unit? Their success here would have been a stimulus all along the line in the way of good citizenship. I think the following reasons account for the failure of the plan:

1. The soil was not properly prepared, either with the pupils or with the faculty. The latter were not hostile, but neither were they openly enthusiastic; success would demand that. The former were not led to see themselves working out this scheme as the culmination of an ideal.

2. Pupils in the elementary schools as a rule are given no opportunity to carry on the affairs of their own room. They are directed by the teacher all the time. Most principals are reluctant to leave

a room alone for five minutes if it can be avoided. Consequently, nowhere along the line are pupils called upon to exercise any degree of self-management and initiative. There may be some rare exceptions to this rule.

Self-control is the basis of all achievement. The supreme business of the school should be the giving of right social attitudes, the development of a sense of justice, power of initiative, and independence of character, and the ability to co-operate toward the common good. Instead of this, we make, for the most part, the mastering of the content of books the chief end and aim.

I am not submitting this experiment with the idea that I have discovered something new. I have no doubt that more than one experienced high-school principal will say, "We've tried all that out long ago and could have told you that it would not work." Probably true. It has been my experience in life, however, that there are always some who succeed where others fail. It seems to me that the idea is right and the plan worth trying over and over again. I expect to, at any rate, and, under somewhat different conditions, hope for success.



## THE DECLINING IMPORTANCE OF STATE FUNDS IN PUBLIC-SCHOOL FINANCE<sup>1</sup>

FLETCHER HARPER SWIFT  
University of Minnesota

### INCREASING SCHOOL COSTS

In 1890 the United States expended 140 million dollars for public schools; in 1918, 763 millions, an increase of 445 per cent. If a longer period be surveyed, the increase is even more astounding. Thus, comparing the year 1871 with that of 1916, forty-five years later, we discover an annual increase for the United States as a whole of more than 800 per cent, while the increase in expenditure by our

TABLE I  
INCREASING ATTENDANCE AND SCHOOL COSTS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1870-1918

Year	Millions of Children in Average Attendance	Average Annual Expenditure per Child	Millions of Dollars Expended
1870.....	4	\$ 15	63
1880.....	6	12	78
1890.....	8	17	140
1900.....	10	20	214
1910.....	12	33	426
1915.....	14	44	605
1918.....	15	49	763
1870 and 1918 compared: Percentage of increase...	275	226	440

chief divisions ranges from an increase of 675 per cent for the North Atlantic division to an increase of 3,950 per cent for the Western division. Table I shows by ten-year periods the increase from 1870 to 1918 in (1) the number of children in average attendance, (2) the annual expenditure per child in attendance, and (3) the total annual expenditure.

From Table I we see that in 1918 there were nearly four times as many children in average daily attendance as in 1870, that the

<sup>1</sup> An address delivered before Section Q, American Association for the Advancement of Science, at its annual meeting, 1920.

expenditure per child was more than three times as great, and that the total expenditure was more than twelve times as great. Rapid as has been the increase in expenditure, it has not kept pace with the growing demand for educational opportunities and the growing costs. From almost every state come reports of an ominous shortage of teachers, buildings, equipment, and accounts of frantic attempts to reduce in the name of economy school curricula to the narrow arid state of generations gone. The educational crisis of which we hear on every hand is in its last analysis a financial crisis. In its presence we are confronted first by the demand that it be met, second by the query how.

The most natural answer to the query just stated is: by increasing local taxation. Even a cursory study of the history of school support in the United States will show that this is the manner in which increases in school burdens have been cared for during the last fifty years. But after fifty years of support by local taxation, we find ourselves in an educational situation marked by economic and educational inequalities. On the one hand, we have wealthy communities levying school taxes of less than one mill and able from the proceeds to maintain schools of the highest standard. On the other hand, we find exceedingly poor communities levying taxes of over one hundred mills, but scarcely able to maintain schools of minimum standard. In view of these and many other facts which might be cited, it would seem that the time has arrived when we should undertake to ascertain whether a thoroughgoing modification, perhaps indeed a complete reversal of our traditional policies of school support, may not be necessary.

In the year 1918 approximately 75 per cent of the 763 million dollars expended in the United States on public schools was furnished by local units, districts, towns, and townships. Approximately 8 per cent was furnished by the counties and 17 per cent by the states. Our interest in the present case, however, lies especially in the questions: What percentage of total school costs has been paid by the states? And, further: How widely does the percentage furnished by the states vary? This question is answered for the year 1918 by Table II, which shows the states arranged in seven groups and ranked on the basis of the percentage of school receipts

provided by the states, the states in each group, and the states ranking highest, median, and lowest respectively.

Various writers on school finance have urged that the state ought to furnish from one-third to one-half of the total school revenue. From Table II we see that there are only two states in the Union which derive more than 50 per cent of their revenue from this source. Thirty-seven states, that is, approximately three-fourths

TABLE II  
PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOL BURDEN BORNE BY THE STATES

Group	Percentage	Number of States in Group	States
I.....	More than 60	1	Ala.
II.....	50-59	1	Ga.
III.....	40-49	6	Miss., D.C., Ky., N.J., Me., Tex.
IV.....	30-39	4	Nev., Utah, Md., Va.
V.....	20-29	12	Minn., Ark., Del., Wyo., La., Fla., Vt., Cal., Mich., Wash., Ariz., N.Mex.
VI.....	10-19	12	Tenn., Wis., Ind., S.D., N.D., Okla., N.C., S.C., Idaho, Mont., Mo., Conn.
VII.....	0-9	13	Pa., N.Y., W.Va., Neb., Ohio, Ill., Colo., N.H., R.I., Ore., Mass., Kan., Iowa
Total.....		49*	

\*Including District of Columbia.

COMPARATIVE RANKS

Highest	Approximate Median	Lowest
Alabama, 63.7	Tennessee, 19.6	Iowa, 2.2

of our states, receive considerably less than one-third of their school moneys from state sources.<sup>1</sup>

However interesting and significant the distribution of school burdens at the present time may be, a matter of greater significance is the trend of this distribution. Are our states shouldering a larger or a smaller portion of the total cost from year to year? The answer to this question is presented in Table III.

<sup>1</sup> The moneys reported as state receipts in federal bulletins from which the foregoing data are taken include certain federal moneys, notably from Smith-Hughes grants.

Table III reveals a continuous decline in the percentage of the total burden of school support borne by the state. We may well inquire whether the importance of the state as a source of school revenue may not vary considerably with the section of the country studied. The answer to this question is presented in Table IV, which shows the percentage of the total school revenue furnished

TABLE III  
PERCENTAGE ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL RECEIPTS IN THE UNITED STATES,  
1890-1918\*

SOURCE OF RECEIPTS	1890	1895	1900	1905	1910	1915	1918
A. Percentage Analysis of Total Receipts							
State sources† . . .	23.75	23.4	20.3	19.06	18.1	18.35	16.8‡
Local sources. . . .	67.89	67.0	68.9	69.64	72.1	77.50	75.3
Miscellaneous . . .	8.36	9.6	10.8	11.30	9.8	4.15	7.9
Total . . . . .	100.00	100.0	100.0	100.00	100.0	100.00	100.0
B. Percentage Provided by Permanent Funds§ and by State Taxes and Appropriations							
Permanent funds and lands§ . . .	5.45	4.7	4.2	4.37	3.2	2.90	2.90
State taxes† and appropriations.	18.30	18.7	16.1	14.69	14.9	15.45	13.69
Total . . . . .	23.75	23.4	20.3	19.06	18.1	18.35	16.59

\* All data from reports of United States Commissioner of Education.

† Includes some federal moneys.

‡ Includes \$639,057.00 of Smith-Hughes moneys.

§ Includes negligible percentage from local funds.

|| This total is not identical with the figure given as state sources in Part A of this table. The United States Commissioner in the latest bulletin uses a different system of computation, so that changes were necessary in order to get data comparable with earlier years. The slight difference might be the result of omission of small federal contributions included generally in state receipts.

by the state for the United States and for each of its major divisions in the years 1890, 1905, and 1915. It should be noted that the divisions are arranged in the order of the percentage contributed by the state in the year 1890.

The greatest decrease in any of the divisions included in Table IV in the percentage of revenue furnished by the state was in the South Central and South Atlantic groups. Table V shows this decline in each of the seven states included in the South Central group, and in three South Atlantic states, namely, Georgia and the

two Carolinas. These three states have been selected because in 1890 they ranked highest in the South Atlantic division in respect to the percentage of their total school revenue derived from state sources.

TABLE IV

DECREASE IN PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL SCHOOL RECEIPTS FURNISHED BY THE STATE  
IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN ITS FIVE MAJOR DIVISIONS

	1890	1905	1915	Percentage of Decrease 1890-1915
United States.....	23.75	19.06	18.35	5.40
Divisions:				
North Atlantic.....	17.11	12.63	13.78	3.30
North Central.....	17.61	14.23	14.24	2.37
Western.....	29.40	32.94	25.90	3.50
South Atlantic.....	46.39	40.70	27.29	19.10
South Central.....	65.23	47.82	35.72	29.51

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL SCHOOL RECEIPTS PROVIDED BY THE STATE  
IN THE SOUTH CENTRAL STATES AND THREE SOUTH ATLANTIC STATES  
IN THE YEARS 1890 AND 1918

STATE	1890		1918		PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE(-)
	Rank*	Percentage†	Rank*	Percentage‡	
Alabama.....	5	67.7	1	63.7	-4.0
Arkansas.....	8	48.9	6	28.2	-20.7
Georgia.....	7	56.5	4	50.4	-6.1
Kentucky.....	6	59.3	5	46.5	-12.8
Louisiana.....	10	37.2	7	24.1	-13.1
Mississippi.....	9	44.3	3	49.7	+5.4
North Carolina.....	4	77.4	9	14.2	-63.2
South Carolina.....	1	82.7	10	13.1	-69.6
Tennessee.....	2	81.7	8	19.6	-62.1
Texas.....	3	79.8	2	41.0	-38.8

\* Computed.

† Computed from data, *Report of Commissioner of Education, 1889-90, I, 22*, by adding percentage derived from permanent funds and rents to percentage derived from state taxes.

‡ Column 2, Table 44, *Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 11, 1920, p. 122*.

Of the ten states included in Table V, Mississippi is the only one in which a larger percentage of the total school revenue came from the state in 1918 than in 1890. In two states, Alabama and Georgia, the difference between the proportion of school revenues

furnished in 1890 and 1918 was small. In every one of the remaining seven states the difference was marked, varying all the way from a decrease of 12.8 per cent in Kentucky to approximately 70 per cent in South Carolina. In 1918 (see Table II) the states

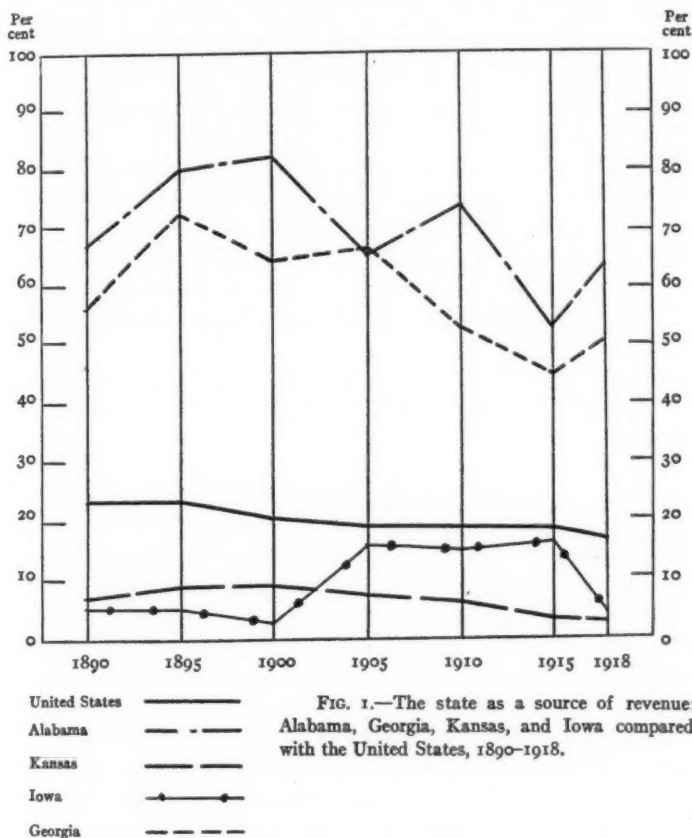


FIG. 1.—The state as a source of revenue: Alabama, Georgia, Kansas, and Iowa compared with the United States, 1890-1918.

ranking highest, median, and lowest with respect to percentage of receipts furnished by the state were Alabama, Tennessee, and Iowa. In order to amplify our comprehension of the history of the state as a factor in school finance, it has seemed well to show in Table VI

the part played by the state in the three just-named states, and in the two states ranking closest to each of the three. The rise and

TABLE VI  
PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL SCHOOL RECEIPTS FURNISHED BY THE STATE\*

State	1890	1895	1900	1905	1910	1915	1918
Alabama.....	67.76	80.6	82.3	65.57	74.1	52.72	63.7
Georgia.....	56.53	72.9	64.4	66.40	53.0	44.82	50.4
Mississippi.....	44.29	81.9	59.4	73.34	55.2	51.58	49.7
New Mexico.....	7.07	0.0	91.5	60.02	7.8	30.13	20.7
Tennessee.....	81.69	87.8	7.2	19.66	15.9	19.18	19.6
Wisconsin.....	19.53	16.3	13.3	17.29	15.8	20.56	18.0
Massachusetts.....	3.35	1.6	1.2	2.08	2.0	1.82	3.7
Kansas.....	7.23	9.2	9.4	7.90	6.1	3.53	2.9
Iowa.....	2.9	2.8	1.4	8.02	7.5	8.31	2.2

\* Includes certain moneys derived from federal agents. Needless to say, the only one of these available to all the states was the Smith-Hughes grant, first apportioned among the states in 1918.

decline of the state as a source of school revenue in Alabama, Georgia, Kansas, Iowa, and in the United States are shown graphically in Figure 1.

#### THE FETISH OF LOCAL SUPPORT

The preceding paragraphs have shown conclusively that throughout the last fifty years the importance of the state as the bearer of school financial burdens has steadily declined. Despite a certain degree of progress in matters of centralization, administration, and control, and despite utterances of educational theorists and court decisions to the contrary, schools in the United States continue to be in fact local institutions dominated by the traditions and policies of district and town systems. These traditions have proved stronger than laws and judicial findings. Our schools not only have never ceased to be local institutions from the standpoint of support, but have tended to become more and more so with each decade of our national history. It is true that the state directs the people of each community to maintain a school, but having done this, it says in effect: Whether you maintain a good, a poor, or a thoroughly worthless school is largely a question to be decided by you.



Ever since Connecticut nearly ruined her schools (1801-40) by attempting to support them entirely from the proceeds of her permanent school fund, local support has steadily gained ground both in theory and in practice until it has become little less than a fetish. The suggestion that the state levy a school tax sufficient to pay for the major part of school costs would today meet with violent opposition in nearly every state in the Union. Nevertheless, the fact remains that the local units upon which the burden is now placed are so unequal in wealth, and consequently in their ability to finance schools, that it is the height of absurdity to expect them to offer educational opportunities approaching any degree of equality. In the year 1914-15 counties in Colorado varied in wealth all the way from \$22,000 to \$1,800 per school child. It is evident that these differences as far as financial ability is concerned represent differences in ability to provide school facilities. Even greater inequalities exist among the local units, i.e., school districts. Thus in Conejos County, the valuation per child varied from \$617 (District 29) to \$26,500 (District 15). Similar conditions are to be found in varying degrees in every state in the Union. If space permitted we might present at this point data from practically every state in the Union supporting these statements. We must, however, be content with presenting the facts for three states only, Massachusetts, New York, and Colorado.

Table VII shows how widely the sixty-three counties composing Colorado varied with respect to their financial ability to support schools, the aid they received from the state, and the percentage of their total support derived from the state, the county, and the district.

From Table VII we see that Park County, whose valuation per school child is over \$22,000, receives more state aid per child than Cheyenne, Pitkin, or Larimer counties, each of which has a far lower valuation and whose local tax is higher. Moreover, Park County, which is approximately four times as rich as Pitkin County, levies a county tax only eight-fifteenths as great, and whereas Park County receives from the state \$3.61 per child, Pitkin receives only \$3.33. Baca, the poorest of all counties, levies the highest county tax; yet of the counties selected, four, Alamosa, Pitkin, El Paso,

and Larimer, receive much larger quotas from the state per teacher employed.

It would be absurd to expect anything but flagrant inequalities in educational opportunity in a state where the schools depend for their support upon units so unequal in wealth and where the aid given by the state is distributed so blindly and inequitably. This

TABLE VII

A COMPARISON OF THE FINANCIAL ABILITY AND SCHOOL BURDENS OF CERTAIN  
SELECTED COUNTIES IN COLORADO, 1914-15

COUNTY	VALUATION OF COUNTY PER SCHOOL CHILD (6-21)*		GENERAL COUNTY SCHOOL TAX IN MILLS (COUNTY HIGH- SCHOOL TAX IN- CLUDED)†	RECEIVED FROM STATE FUND		PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL SCHOOL SUPPORT RECEIVED FROM		
	Amount	Rank		Per Child in Average Daily Attendance*	Per Teacher Em- ployed*	State	County	District
Baca.....	\$ 1,822	1	\$2.00	†	\$49	12	27	61
Washington...	3,516	8	1.25	\$6.40	40	14	9	87
Larimer.....	4,450	16	1.10	3.51	81	8	19	73
Alamosa.....	5,057	24	1.00	3.66	65	6	15	79
Hypothetical median\$.....			1.00	3.67	65	7.3	17	76.2
Pitkin.....	5,615	32	1.50	3.33	72	5	19	76
El Paso.....	6,003	40	1.74	3.65	78	5	27	68
Eagle.....	7,291	49	0.60	3.80	43	6	12	82
Cheyenne....	9,542	56	1.66	3.07	30	4	17	79
Park.....	22,674	63	0.80	3.61	27	3	31	66

\* Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 5, 1917, p. 37, Table 15.

† Ibid., p. 43, Table 23.

§ Computed.

‡ Data unavailable; see *ibid.*, p. 38.

|| Median in valuation as will be evident from rank.

expectation is amply borne out by the facts presented in Table VIII. This table, based upon a recent study covering a period of eight years, is much more significant than a table presenting conditions in a single year.

Table VIII shows us that during the eight years from 1906 to 1913, the proportion of children not enrolled in school varied all the way from 7 to 41 per cent; the school year from 98 to 167 days; teachers' average monthly salaries from \$39 to \$81; and the expenditure per child from \$21 to \$77. In view of the fact that one of the three acid tests of democracy is equality of opportunity, it might well be asked whether a state which is characterized by such

striking and grave inequalities has any claim to styling itself a democracy. Yet an indictment on any grounds would have to be made not only against Colorado, but against every state in the Union. We, of course, do not mean to imply that in every case conditions

TABLE VIII  
COUNTY INEQUALITIES OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY IN COLORADO  
ITEM I, ENROLMENT

COUNTY		CHILDREN NOT ENROLLED†	
Rank*	Name	Percentage	Number
1....	Sedgwick	7	46
12....	Kiowa	16	117
34....	El Paso	22	483
48....	Elbert	27	455
60....	Baca	41	278

ITEM II, SCHOOL YEAR

COUNTY		LENGTH OF YEAR IN DAYS§
Rank‡	Name	
1.....	Crowley	167
15.....	Cheyenne	151
	Douglas	141
	Jackson	141
31.5  ...	Las Animas	141
	Pueblo.....	141
45.....	Montezuma	133
61.....	Baca	98

ITEM III, TEACHERS' SALARIES

COUNTY		TEACHERS' AVERAGE MONTHLY SALARY¶
Rank*	Name	
1.....	Gilpin	\$81.00
15.....	Otero	64.50
28.....	Bent	59.00
45.....	Kiowa	53.50
60.....	Washington	39.00

ITEM IV, EXPENDITURE PER CHILD

COUNTY		ANNUAL EXPENDITURE PER CHILD ENROLLED††
Rank**	Name	
1.....	San Juan	\$77.31
16.....	San Miguel	50.45
31.....	Moffat	40.42
46.....	Routt	33.65
62.....	Costilla	21.39

\* Based on reports of sixty counties. Ranks computed. An eight-year average, 1906-13.

† C. G. Sargent, *Rural and Village Schools of Colorado*, p. 14, Table 2. Percentages computed.

‡ Based on reports of sixty-one counties. Ranks computed. An eight-year average, 1906-13.

§ *Ibid.*, p. 44, Table 9.

|| These four counties fall in the same rank, having the same length of term in days.

¶ *Ibid.*, p. 56, Table 13.

\*\* Based on reports of sixty-two counties. Ranks computed. Data for the years 1914-15.

†† *Report of the Colorado School System*, p. 60, Table 34. (*Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 5, 1917.*)

are equally bad, but in a large number of states they are far worse. A complete statement would necessitate an intensive survey of each of the forty-nine units constituting our Union. We will confine our further consideration to certain phases of the school situation in Massachusetts and New York.

The local units in Massachusetts are cities and towns. For purposes of school administration and support, these units are

divided into four classes as follows: Class I, including 38 cities; Class II, including 75 towns, population 5,000 or over; Class III, 116 towns, population less than 5,000, maintaining a high school; Class IV, 125 towns, population less than 5,000, not maintaining a high school.

In 1918 the average length of the school year in Massachusetts varied from 194 days (9 months and 2 weeks) in Brockton to 144 days (7 months and 2 days) in Peru. The average length of the school year for the 38 cities included in Class I was 176 days. Within this class the year varied from 194 days in Brockton to 158 days in Somerville. In other words, a child living in Somerville would have been excluded from school over seven weeks (36 days), during which a child in Brockton would have been able to go to school. Table IX presents a comparison of the length of the school year of Brockton with that of the six cities in Class I which maintain the shortest school year.

TABLE IX  
INEQUALITIES IN THE LENGTH OF THE SCHOOL YEAR IN MASSACHUSETTS, 1918\*

CITY	LENGTH OF SCHOOL YEAR IN DAYS	COMPARISON WITH BROCKTON	
		No. of Days Less	No. of Weeks Less
Brockton.....	194	.....	.....
Lynn.....	165	29	5 weeks, 4 days
Revere.....	163	31	6 weeks, 1 day
Medford.....	160	34	6 weeks, 4 days
Pittsfield.....	158	36	7 weeks, 1 day
Peabody.....			
Somerville.....			

\* Based upon *Massachusetts Statistics of Public Schools, 1917-18*.

In Table X a comparison is presented of a group of New York rural one-teacher school districts all located in the same town. The advantage of such a comparison is that the conditions are probably as approximately equal as could be found when viewed from the standpoint of the burdens of maintenance and of the educational standards which ought to be met.

The districts in Table X are arranged in order of their assessed valuation per child enrolled. It is evident that in the case of one-teacher rural districts, the maximum enrolment of which does not exceed twenty-seven, the cost of maintenance need vary but little,

since the important items of expense, such as teachers' salaries, fuel, and insurance are identical. This inference finds support in the data presented, where the total expenditure varies only from \$428 to \$495, a difference of less than \$70. In total assessed valuation these seven districts vary from \$92,000 (District 6) to \$28,000 (District 5). District No. 2, which ranks next to the lowest in wealth, ranks next to the highest in total expenditure, and levies the heaviest school tax of all. The wealthiest district, No. 6, levies the lowest tax and spends the least money on her schools. This

TABLE X

A COMPARISON OF THE FINANCIAL ABILITY,\* EFFORT†, AND STATE AID OF SEVEN ONE-TEACHER RURAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN ANDOVER, NEW YORK‡

Dist. No.	Enrolment	Assessed Valuation per Child Enrolled	Total Assessed Value	Tax Rate (Mills)	Cost per Child Enrolled	Total Expended	Total State Aid	State Aid per Child Enrolled§
9....	13	\$5,554.53	\$72,209	3.87	\$35.00	\$454.95	\$125.00	\$ 9.61
7....	13	4,901.38	63,718	5.17	38.04	495.51	125.00	9.61
6....	22	4,210.90	92,640	3.28	19.41	428.11	135.00	6.13
5....	11	2,620.00	28,820	8.67	41.03	451.37	185.00	16.81
2....	17	1,787.41	30,386	9.87	28.39	482.65	185.00	10.93
3....	27	1,749.81	47,245	6.18	15.88	428.84	150.00	5.55
4....	21	1,476.19	31,000	7.50	20.89	438.79	185.00	8.80

\* Assessed valuation, not as accurate as measure of ability as true valuation.

† Tax-rate and expenditure

‡ Table X is taken from an unpublished study by Richard A. Graves, graduate student in Education, University of Minnesota, based upon *New York Education Department Report, 1917*, II, 681-84.

§ Computed.

cannot be excused on the ground that her school is small, for, in point of fact, No. 3 is the only district which has a larger enrolment. It is unnecessary to carry farther our consideration of the inequalities and injustices produced and perpetuated throughout the states in our Union by our existing systems of local support. Recognizing the situation as universal and varying only as to the degrees and forms in which it appears, we are forced to ask how shall these inequalities be remedied.

The principle that the state is the proper authority to even our educational inequalities has long been recognized by many of our states in their systems of state aid. Some few states, notably California and Colorado, have definitely taken this position. Thus, in 1913, Colorado created a minimum wage for teachers' fund (*Session Laws, 1913*, chap. 156) to be apportioned among districts

unable to provide from all other sources a sum sufficient to pay each teacher at least \$50 per month for six months. California, by a constitutional amendment, No. 16, adopted in November, 1920, provided that the state must furnish \$30 for each elementary and each high-school pupil in average daily attendance, thus practically doubling the former quotas of \$15 and \$17.50 per pupil. Louisiana by a recent constitutional amendment has added one mill to her rate of state school tax, by which it is estimated that the proceeds will be increased by approximately \$1,600,000. Texas, during the last two years, 1919 and 1920, has repealed her former maximum of \$4.50 of state apportionment, and has increased the amount to \$14.50, and passed a rural aid law doubling the former appropriation of \$2,000,000. To this group of California, Louisiana, and Texas might be added the names of several other states which either have provided, or at the present time are attempting to provide, appreciably larger state revenues for evening out inequalities. Such instances are interesting and significant, but we must not be misled into thinking that they are indicative of the general tendency; for, as we have already seen, the general tendency during the last fifty years has been steadily and increasingly away from dependence upon the state as the provider of school revenues. We have also seen that the policy of placing the major portion of the burden of school support upon local units has everywhere resulted in gross inequalities and, to a large extent, in a failure to make education universal and free.

In conclusion, we may say that the factors, conditions, and situations involved in the existing systems of maintaining schools chiefly by local support are such as to insure the perpetuation of the inequalities and ills which these systems have produced. If these inequalities are to be corrected and the ills to be cured, the remedy must be sought through providing from state or from state and national sources revenues sufficient to pay a large, perhaps indeed the major, portion of school costs. The questions of just what proportion should be thus provided, and what sources and what methods should be utilized are too far-reaching to be considered here; they must consequently be reserved for some future discussion.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*The home economics curriculum.*—The faculty of the Department of Home Economics of the School of Education, University of Chicago, with the collaboration of Professor H. O. Rugg, has completed what is probably the most significant and painstaking investigation<sup>1</sup> of the status of home economics in American schools which has yet been made. Several hundred courses of study from city school systems in twenty-two states have been examined, and the sixty-seven which gave information about the courses in home economics sufficiently full for purposes of study were analyzed critically and tabulated in detail.

The report, consisting of some 60,000 words, is partly descriptive and partly constructive. On the descriptive side the most striking facts revealed by the investigation are summarized in these five statements:

(1) there is little evidence of a continuous sequentially arranged curriculum in the public schools; (2) teaching emphasis is placed on information and technique rather than on powers of thinking and judgment; (3) vague statements of aims and outcomes are prevalent which show the work to be controlled by an interest in subject-matter rather than by educational and psychological motives; (4) there are few tests or scales with which to measure achievement or progress; (5) there is no definite program for curriculum-making [p. 1].

On the constructive side the investigators present suggestions for the improvement of each of the foregoing defects. Of these plans, those for tests, as indicated in No. 4, are most fully carried out. Tests for reasoning, information, and skill, together with the methods of derivation, are described.

The reader is struck with the elaborateness of the report, which in places has been carried to an extreme, as in the presentation of both tables and graphs for the clarification of material so simple that either one or the other, if either, would be sufficient; and also in the inclusion of highly technical description of the derivation of scales, which is too elaborate for those who make scales, and too condensed for the layman.

One is left with the impression that the writers have given their best efforts to the study of the problems and that their contributions are interesting, instructive, and scholarly.

W. W. CHARTERS

CARNEGIE INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

<sup>1</sup> *Home Economics in American Schools*. "Supplementary Educational Monographs," Vol. II, No. 6. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1920. Pp. xii+122. \$1.25.



*Industrial education.*—The industrial-education movement as we know it today has developed through the interplay of many factors closely interwoven throughout our whole educational, industrial, and social fabric. Students of the movement will welcome a publication<sup>1</sup> which organizes and interprets the literature bearing upon important phases of this type of training. The treatment in this study is historical, and interpretation is from the social-economic point of view. The book is exceptionally well written, and, although historical and in many places statistical, it is very readable.

Apprenticeship is covered from the point of view of its significance in training workers for production and in fitting them for the responsibilities of citizenship. The advantages and disadvantages of the system are discussed, and attention is drawn to the distinction between apprenticeship and "industrial servitude," types of indenture which are sometimes confused.

The author discusses the nature of modern industry and stresses the limited opportunity for working boys and girls under sixteen years of age. He shows the desirability of extended compulsory school attendance and at the same time makes a plea for enriched training opportunity for all boys and girls. If the constructive program suggested falls short at any point, it is probably through failure to suggest a program of serious, wholesome work for young people between the ages of fourteen and sixteen.

The present status of women in industry is summarized as follows:

1. Women in agriculture are not skilled farmers and need little or no training.
2. On the whole, little skill is required in domestic and personal service as it is now conducted. There are, however, opportunities to develop and train this class of workers which have not been seized.
3. In manufacturing, women are at the bottom of the industrial ladder. They work chiefly at automatic tasks and, taken as a whole, do not need much vocational training for their specific tasks.
4. The situation is brighter in mercantile occupations. More training is undoubtedly needed by the workers, although it is questionable whether this can extend very far [p. 173].

The author accounts for the situation here presented and suggests the way out for those who are dissatisfied.

There is throughout the book a plea for something more than training for immediate productive efficiency. This spirit carries through the discussion of part-time, trade, and other types of school training. It is assumed that in addition to performance in a productive capacity the individual is to function as a homemaker and as a citizen.

The author's survey of the literature of vocational guidance and placement leads to the discussion of a centralized community program which is

<sup>1</sup> PAUL H. DOUGLAS, *American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education*. "Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law," Vol. XCV, No. 2. New York: Columbia University, 1921. Pp. 348. \$3.50.

much to be desired. His recommendations covering the administration of such a program, with the school responsible for guidance and placement lodged with some outside agency, are open to question. Vocational guidance and junior placement represent movements not yet freed from the overenthusiasm which accompanies the launching of almost any new enterprise. For this reason it seems a bit too early to draw conclusions from the literature on the subject. This is especially true as regards literature relating to proposed rather than actual development.

Considerable space is given to a discussion of the economic effects of industrial education and the present attitude of labor and capital toward the general problem. The source material presented in this connection is especially helpful. The book closes with a suggested program which is constructive and for the most part sound.

E. T. FILBEY

---

*Educational and vocational guidance.*—The first<sup>1</sup> of a new series of educational monographs makes use of the Binet Scale and the Army Intelligence Examinations in studying the problems of educational and vocational guidance of high-school pupils. The chief value of the monograph appears to be in the suggestion of method for other studies of a similar nature. The author has touched upon too many problems in a short space to offer more than tentative results for any of them, and it is to be hoped that more complete studies will follow, making use of some of the valuable methods which this study has set forth.

The use of the army examination is justified by the writer in part because of its high correlation (.74) with the Binet Scale, and in part because of the great economy of time in giving group tests. The interpretation of the correlation above is at least open to question. Two tests may be correlated as highly as these and yet agree in placing only 50 per cent of a group of children in the same three categories.

In discussing the problem of school success, Dr. Proctor shows that the duller pupils are eliminated by dropping out to go to work or to other schools. A preliminary mental survey by the high-school principal will therefore be of great value in planning the pupils' programs. The conclusions of the author, however, that 50 per cent of those who test below normal will be eliminated within the first two years and that a negligible number will ever graduate, hardly follow from the limited data he has presented. More extended studies are needed before we can discover "at the outset that from 15-30 per cent of the pupils are incapable of succeeding in the conventional high-school subjects" (p. 22).

<sup>1</sup> WILLIAM MARTIN PROCTOR, *Psychological Tests and Guidance of High School Pupils*. "Journal of Educational Research Monographs," No. 1. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1921. Pp. 70.

The method of studying educational guidance by comparing "guided" and "unguided" groups is excellent, but the number of pupils in the "guided" group (22) is too small to furnish more than suggestive conclusions. The emphasis on algebra in guidance would be further justified if correlations between intelligence and other school subjects were obtained.

In the problem of vocational guidance Dr. Proctor has made a valuable contribution in method in his distribution tables. The use of psychological tests as an aid in vocational guidance is still in the early experimental stages, as this study points out. These tests are clearly more effective in the selection of employees in a particular occupation than in the guidance of pupils as to which vocation to choose.

The last chapter of the monograph deals with the use of psychological tests for college entrance. A higher correlation was found between high-school and university scholarship than between the intelligence test and university scholarship. In spite of this, the author concludes that mental tests will become the generally accepted means of making the final selection from those seeking to enter college.

*Socialized geography.*—With the growth of geography there has been a tendency toward specialization in one field or another. Courses given under the title of physical geography have commonly overemphasized the static side of physical features with a consequent neglect of the forces of nature and of man's adaptation to his physical environment. Economic or commercial geographies are generally restricted to a mere catalogue of industries, agriculture, and mineral resources with no attempt to trace the relation of these industries to the climate and physical features of the earth. Courses offered under the title of regional geography divide the earth into physiographic or industrial units, dropping the old method of studying geography by states or countries.

The trend of present-day geography is toward a combination of the three types of geographies mentioned. Such a course does not deal with some particular phase of geography but unifies the science into an organic whole. A text<sup>1</sup> organized on the foregoing principle has recently been published.

The author has not attempted to include all of the points presented in the ordinary course in physical geography, only such material being included as is necessary to furnish a foundation for the effect of geographical influence upon the life of man. The following excerpt from chapter x, "Plains and Life," illustrates very well the emphasis placed upon physiographic forms in relation to the life of man:

Plains and the movement of people.—Ease and cheapness of transport, whether for trade, travel, or immigration, are very important. Upon a prairie plain there is practically nothing to hinder the movements of people or of produce. When our

<sup>1</sup> JAMES F. CHAMBERLAIN, *Geography: Physical, Economic, Regional*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1921. Pp. xviii+509.

early settlers reached the prairie-plains they moved westward with great freedom. Russia has found it easy to extend eastward a peaceful conquest to the shore of the Pacific Ocean, in part because of the levelness of the land.

The building of highways and railways on a plain is easy and relatively inexpensive. Little grading is required, and roads follow any desired route. This means a multiplicity of roads, and consequently ample opportunity to market the products of an area. The cost of maintaining roads on level land is not so great as it is in mountains.

The uniformity in climatic conditions leads to uniformity in plant and animal life, and hence, to a certain extent, in interests and industries. As a rule, a large area of a plain recognizes the same governmental authority. The climatic uniformity which plains present have in some cases a disadvantageous effect. This is seen in Siberia, where there is very little progress. Here the winters are so long and so severe that the enforced life within doors unfits the peasant for work when spring arrives. Owing to the marshy condition of large areas roads are practically impassable during the summer, and cultivation is retarded until late in the season [pp. 118-19].

The book is divided into three parts. The first part deals with physical geography; the second part, with economic geography, and the third part, with the regional geography of the United States. Throughout the book emphasis is placed on the human elements. The book is a valuable contribution to the field of secondary-school geography.

---

*Secondary-school history.*—The authors of a new text<sup>1</sup> have attempted to make the content of their volume accord with the views of the so-called "new history" group and their method of treatment meet the demand of the latest theories of the schools of education. They have given comparatively little attention to political development and have emphasized the social and economic aspects of our history. Though recognizing that the topical method may be "pushed too far," they have acceded to what they conceived to be a modern demand and followed it as far as they deemed practicable. In order to satisfy those who are unwilling to make any concessions, they have furnished a topical syllabus near the end of the book. In deference to what is perhaps another very modern notion also, they have devoted more than the usual amount of space to the period since the Civil War. They have done this within the limits allowed the modern writer of textbooks by resorting to the expedient of eliminating the story of Spanish achievement in North America and omitting biographical sketches of heroes and accounts of wars.

The authors are at their best when discussing the economic and social phases of United States history since 1870. In this respect it would seem that they have excelled most authors who have undertaken a similar work. In fact, it may be doubted whether there is any serious flaw in the last eleven chapters of the book. Unfortunately this cannot be said of some of the other portions of the text. For instance, it is perhaps erroneous to consider the

<sup>1</sup> CHARLES A. BEARD and MARY R. BEARD, *History of the United States*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. xv+663.

early colonial experiments in common tillage as an attempt to apply socialistic theory; the treatment of colonial schools and colleges is too scanty; the clear, concise, and otherwise commendable discussion of the framing of the federal constitution of 1787 fails to note what are perhaps the most significant features of that document; it may be seriously questioned whether the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions emphasized states' rights and nullification as much as individual rights which it was thought the duty of the states to defend; such a conventional discussion of the annexation of Texas and the Mexican War embodied in what purports to be a very modern book is disappointing, to say the least. Surely a more careful perusal of two of the references which they inaccurately cite at the close of chapter xii, supplemented by Justin H. Smith's *The Mexican War*, would at least have led them to suspect that there might be two sides to this phase of our international relations.

With regard to form and supplementary aids the work deserves moderate commendation only. There is a deficiency in the number of maps but a profusion of good illustrations and cartoons, and numerous inaccuracies are found in the titles given at the close of the chapters.

J. FRED RIPPY

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

*European-history texts.*—The two-year European-history course proposed by the Committee on Social Studies in 1916 has unquestionably come to stay. Two of the first books in the field conforming to the proposal of this Committee were *Outlines of European History* in two parts by Professors Breasted, Robinson, and Beard. While the *Outlines* were by no means a failure, they did not fully satisfy the authors, hence the recent appearance of two new books covering the same field as that treated in the *Outlines*. The first volume<sup>1</sup> of this new series treats of the period to 1789. The extension of the account to this date will meet with favor in many quarters, because of the desire to emphasize the more modern period. While the second volume<sup>2</sup> begins with the Age of Louis XIV, it gives due emphasis to things modern, half of it being devoted to the period since 1870. This emphasis will also meet with the approval of many, because of the paucity of suitable material on this important period of European history.

The general organization and arrangement of the volumes are admirable in many respects. First, there is a general outline of the entire field covered by each volume. The divisions are appropriately named and numbered as Book I, Book II, etc. These large topics are divided into chapters, and each chapter into several topical sections. The chapters, as well as the topics, are arranged with strict attention to chronology. Throughout the two

<sup>1</sup> JAMES H. ROBINSON and JAMES H. BREASTED, *History of Europe—Ancient and Medieval*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1920. Pp. xiii+665+xiv.

<sup>2</sup> JAMES H. ROBINSON and CHARLES A. BEARD, *History of Europe—Our Own Times*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1921. Pp. xii+616+xxi.

volumes the authors have endeavored to portray past conditions, institutions, and ideas rather than simply to present short isolated accounts of past events.

Both volumes are adequately supplied with valuable teaching aids in the form of maps, illustrations, references for additional reading, and questions, the last two being found at the end of each chapter. A complete classified bibliography is found at the end of each volume. It does not seem too much to say for the two volumes that their superior does not now exist. They are sure to meet with the success they deserve.

---

*Our history and government.*—Textbooks in American history for the upper elementary grades seem to come in waves. Eight or ten years ago a number of texts in this field appeared in quick succession. After this outburst, due in a large measure to the report of the Committee of Eight, there came a period of four or five years in which all the energy of the publishers and authors was expended in getting books adopted and keeping them up to date. We seem to be approaching the crest of another wave of texts in American history for upper elementary grades. To the writer's knowledge, two have recently appeared and three others are now in press.

To justify its appearance in an already overcrowded field, a new book in American history on the grammar-grade level ought to be unique in some particular. The book<sup>1</sup> under consideration will have a hard time to justify its appearance if it is intended for this level of instruction. It is certainly no better and in many respects less valuable than a number already in the field. It contains no aids of any kind, such as references, questions, and suggestions. Colored maps are very rare, and the illustrations are rather scattering. The organization is by chapters arranged in chronological order. The Appendix contains the Covenant of the League of Nations along with such material as the Constitution, Table of Presidents, etc. At the end of each chapter appears a considerable body of material under the heading, "Notes and Sidelights." This material is in smaller type than that in much of the main body of the text. In some cases it consumes as much space as the main discussion in the chapter it follows. Its nature is much like the material one used to find in the footnotes of the Barnes's history. In a certain sense the author has written two parallel accounts.

---

*Economic civics for junior and senior high schools.*—In the development of modern education it has come to be felt that a knowledge of the underlying principles of economic life is essential to good citizenship. The course of study has been enlarged from year to year, but it is only in recent times that the matter of courses and texts especially adapted to this practical citizenship training—the material things of everyday life from the civics viewpoint—has been worked out.

<sup>1</sup> MATHEW PAGE ANDREWS, *American History and Government*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1921. Pp. 528.

Two such texts have recently come from practical teachers in this field, one for the junior high school and the other for the senior high school. The junior high school text<sup>1</sup> opens with two chapters on human wants and needs that should fix in the mind of the young citizen a broad conception and an inquiring attitude concerning these motivating forces of human activity. These chapters are devoted to government organizations which may be omitted by teachers "who are certain that their pupils are thoroughly familiar with this." Production is comprehensively treated with discussions on the stages of industrial progress, division of labor, and specialization. Other major discussions are on modern business, transportation, and labor conditions. The last three chapters present a finely worked-out course on improving living conditions, industry, and government and society. The whole work is organized especially for junior high school students. Good lists of questions and projects are interspersed throughout.

The senior high school text<sup>2</sup> is a comprehensive elementary work, having for its chief objective the bringing of the student into intimate relationship with economic life itself, approached from a civic and social viewpoint. "Although economic theory is duly recognized whenever it touches vitally the problem at hand," the main emphasis is always placed on the concrete problem, for the comprehension of which a knowledge of the theory is essential. Thirty-one chapters of the volume are given to problems of production and consumption. Other chapters present studies in problems of exchange, distribution, and economic reform.

The book is written in a clear, easy style, and is well organized for use as a secondary-school text. Each chapter is preceded by a working outline and followed by lists of questions and problems for discussion. The sentiment of the book is expressed in its dedication to the "Spirit of Abiding Americanism."

---

*New texts in community civics.*—Textbook writers and publishers seem to have made up their minds that the present supply of texts in community civics is inadequate. During the past year there has been a great deal of scrambling on the part of book companies for texts in this field. To the writer's knowledge five companies have succeeded in finding manuscripts which they consider worth publishing, and three others are searching the country for individuals who will agree to write such manuscripts for them. This great activity and interest in more and better material in community civics ought to result in some much needed reforms in this important field. Inasmuch as three companies have recently published their offerings, one is able to predict the outcome of the present great interest and activity in writing and publishing texts in community civics.

<sup>1</sup> R. O. HUGHES, *Economic Civics*. New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1921. Pp. xv+331.

<sup>2</sup> HENRY REED BURCH, *American Economic Life*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. xi+531.



The author of one new text<sup>1</sup> organizes his material under five main divisions, which he names "The Community and Its Interests," "The Elements of Community Welfare," "The Works of the Community," "A Self-Governing Community," and "The Loyal Citizen." To two of these divisions the author devotes but one chapter each, to one of the others four chapters, five chapters to another division, and to the remaining division eleven chapters. The wisdom of such an unequal distribution of material among large divisions of a field is questionable. The two divisions with one chapter each seem somewhat overshadowed when placed side by side with others much more fully treated.

Mr. Adams gives considerable attention to the elements of community welfare, such as health, protection of life and property, education, recreation, civic beauty, communication, transportation, and wealth. In most cases these topics are interestingly and concretely treated. The copious supply of suggestions for further study and discussion which one finds scattered throughout the book furnishes an excellent guide for vitalizing the material on which they are based. The text as a whole is an improvement over the more traditional ones which appeared some six or eight years ago.

A second book,<sup>2</sup> written by a teacher of history and civics and a superintendent of schools, purports to be the outcome of a number of years of teaching experience. For example, the questions at the end of each chapter are in large part those asked by the pupils in classes in community civics in a city-school system. Another feature of this book not found in other books in its field is the historical approach to each topic. In most instances this historical material is presented in a concrete, interesting, and natural way. Inasmuch as their will always be a close relation between history and community civics, the historical approach to civic topics is sure to meet with the approval of the teachers of the subjects.

Barring the two special features mentioned, the book is much like all other late publications in its field. In it one finds the so-called "welfare topics" the chief center of attention. There are also a number of well-chosen illustrations, usable book lists for both pupils and teacher, a page or so of suggestions to teachers, and an appendix containing the Constitution of the United States.

An attempt to get work in civics nearer the everyday life of pupils in the civics class is found in one of the latest publications<sup>3</sup> in this field. The title of the book, *Everyday Civics*, suggests what the author has tried to do. Action rather than knowledge is the chief end sought in Mr. Finch's civics-teaching.

<sup>1</sup> EDWIN W. ADAMS, *A Community Civics*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1920. Pp. vi+385.

<sup>2</sup> EDGAR W. AMES and ARVIL ELDRED, *Community Civics*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. xiv+387.

<sup>3</sup> CHARLES EDGAR FINCH, *Everyday Civics*. New York: American Book Co., 1921. Pp. x+326.

To attain this desirable goal, he would have all civic truths that are discussed in the classroom tested out in such laboratories as the home, the school, the playground, and the neighborhood. Some of the civic truths around which the discussion in the book centers and which are to be incorporated into the everyday lives of the pupils are: co-operation rather than criticism is the essential thing in a democracy; willingness to do one's part is absolutely essential to American citizenship; citizens must understand the ways and means of carrying out the purposes of government; "progress in government has been the result of persistent effort through a long period of time"; and citizens must acquire the habit of thinking about problems of government in relation to the fundamental law of the land. Inasmuch as such truths as these form the foundation upon which the book is made, one is not surprised to find it made up largely of material relating to government and politics. The idea back of Mr. Finch's text is a commendable one, and the success of the book in the hands of the ordinary class teacher will be watched with interest.

---

*The history of literature.*—Those who believe that it is better to study *things* than to study *about* things will be interested in a recent English text<sup>1</sup> which assumes that this is the best way for boys and girls to gain a true insight into the history of literature. This volume is the first to appear of a series of anthologies edited by Dr. James F. Hosc. It is intended for pupils in the third or fourth years of high school. It consists of a collection of material for study classified under the following types: "Narrative Poetry," "Lyric Poetry," "Dramatic Poetry," "The Essay," "Prose Fiction," and "The Oration." With few exceptions each of these groups is accompanied by illuminating introductions, suggestions for study, and references for additional readings along similar lines. Dr. Hosc contributes a general introduction, and Miss Rich furnishes a letter to the student which contains valuable directions for the use of the text.

Some teachers will regard it as unfortunate that Miss Rich, by grouping masterpieces under literary types rather than in accordance with content or historical period, emphasizes form rather than spirit. There are obvious advantages in such an arrangement, however, and a skilful teacher can guard against the dangers involved. The selections are chosen not only to convey an appreciation of the history of English literature, but to awaken a genuine delight in its manifold phases. The book meets a real need.

HOWARD C. HILL

---

*High-school methods.*—The scarcity of textbooks in the field of high-school methods is itself assurance of a widespread interest in any contribution to this body of literature which comes from an authoritative source. The most recent

<sup>1</sup> MABEL IRENE RICH, *A Study of the Types of Literature*. New York: Century Co., 1921. Pp. xxv+540.

addition<sup>2</sup> of this kind is in reality a discussion of general methods in large part, but is presented as a text in special methods of high-school instruction. While there is little in Professor Foster's book which one would call new, it contains many practical suggestions which are the result of actual experience in a number of teaching and administrative positions.

The book opens with a discussion of the meaning of method and the principles underlying methods of teaching in secondary schools. The treatment of the general problem of high-school teaching includes the usual topics of aims of instruction, lesson development, the recitation mode, the question, standards and measurements in instruction, etc. At the end of each chapter appear questions for discussion and suggestions for supplementary reading. An appendix presents sample lesson plans in physical geography, algebra, United States history, Spanish, English, and home economics. While the discussion and the lesson plans seem somewhat out of date, the book as a whole offers material which will be of considerable assistance to both experienced and inexperienced teachers.

---

*History of the American public school.*—It is the belief of the writer of a recent book<sup>3</sup> on the history of education that historical perspective is indispensable to an adequate comprehension of present-day education in America. To give this necessary perspective, the author confines his attention largely to the historical phases of the American public school system. Barring a chapter on Rousseau, one on Pestalozzi, and one on Herbart and Froebel, the entire discussion deals with American education from colonial times to the present.

As a whole, the work is very elementary in character. The author states that it is merely an attempt to arrange the material as set forth in the secondary sources in such a way as to meet the needs of normal-school students. The general plan followed throughout the book is to present a brief discussion of a great many topics. This procedure makes the book appear encyclopedic, somewhat dry, and rather formal. No additional references are suggested to elaborate the author's treatment of the numerous topics included.

---

### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

- BADANES, JULIE E. *The First Practical Steps in Selecting Gifted Children in a Large City School.* New York: Continental Printing Co., 1921. Pp. 22.
- BALDWIN, BIRD T. *The Physical Growth of Children from Birth to Maturity.* "University of Iowa Studies," First Series, No. 50. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1921. Pp. 411.

<sup>1</sup> HERBERT H. FOSTER, *Principles of Teaching in Secondary Education.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1921. Pp. xviii+367.

<sup>2</sup> ROSS L. FINNEY, *The American Public School.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. xiv+335.

- BERKSON, ISAAC B. *Theories of Americanization*. "Contributions to Education," No. 109. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1920. Pp. 226.
- BRANOM, MENDEL E., and BRANOM, FRED K. *The Teaching of Geography*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1921. Pp. viii+292.
- DONOVAN, JOHN J. *School Architecture*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. xix+724. \$20.00.
- DOUGLASS, HARL ROY. *The Derivation and Standardization of a Series of Diagnostic Tests for the Fundamentals of First Year Algebra*. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon Press, 1921. Pp. 48.
- DOUGLASS, PAUL H. *American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education*. "Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law," Vol. XCV, No. 2. New York: Columbia University, 1921. Pp. 348.
- GLEASON, ARTHUR. *Workers' Education*. New York: Bureau of Industrial Research, 1921 [revised]. Pp. 86. \$0.50.
- JESSUP, EVA, and BLANCHARD, CLYDE. *An Analysis of the Work of Juniors in Banks*. "Part-Time Education Series," No. 5. Berkeley, California: University of California, 1921. Pp. 72.
- MONROE, WALTER S. *Report of Division of Educational Tests for 1919-20*. "University of Illinois Bulletin," Vol. XVIII, No. 21. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1921. Pp. 64. \$0.25.
- National Intelligence Tests. *Scale A, Form 2. Scale B, Form 2*. (Prepared under the auspices of National Research Council). Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1920.
- STOUT, JOHN ELBERT. *The Development of High-School Curricula in the North Central States from 1860 to 1918*. "Supplementary Educational Monographs," Vol. III, No. 3. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1921. Pp. xi+322. \$2.00.

#### BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- ANDREWS, CHARLES M. *A History of England*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1921 [revised]. Pp. xxi+657+51.
- BROOMHALL, EDITH J. *Spanish Composition*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1921. Pp. ix+127+36.
- BROWNLEE, RAYMOND B., FULLER, ROBERT W., HANCOCK, WILLIAM J., SOHON, MICHAEL D., and WHITSIT, JESSE E. *Elementary Principles of Chemistry*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1921. Pp. ix+588+17.
- Caesar's *Galic War, Books VI and VII*. Edited by R. W. LIVINGSTONE and C. E. FREEMAN. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1921. Pp. 159. \$1.00.
- CAMERLYNCK, MADAME, and CAMERLYNCK, G. H. *France. Méthode directe de français*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1921. Pp. ix+220+58.

- DAVIS, ROY, and LINGHAM, CLARENCE H. *Business English and Correspondence*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1921 [revised]. Pp. 400. \$1.48.
- EDGERTON, EDWARD I., and BARTHOLOMEW, WALLACE E. *Business Mathematics*. New York: Ronald Press, 1921. Pp. vi+305.
- GRIFFIN, FRANK LOXLEY. *Introduction to Mathematical Analysis*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1921. Pp. viii+512. \$2.75.
- HANEY, JOHN LOUIS. *English Literature*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Howe, 1920. Pp. xi+452.
- HERRICK, CHEESMAN A. *English Readings for Commercial Classes*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. x+197.
- PHIPPS, HELEN. *Páginas Sudamericanas*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1920. Pp. vi+208.
- REEVE, FREDERICK C. *Elementary Qualitative Analysis*. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1921. Pp. vii+143.
- RHODES, CHARLES ELBERT. *Effective Expression*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1921. Pp. xii+532.
- RICH, MABEL IRENE. *A Study of the Types of Literature*. New York: Century Co., 1921. Pp. xxv+540. \$2.00.
- RICHARDSON, MYRON W. *Making a High School Program*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1921. Pp. vii+27.
- ROBINSON, JAMES HARVEY, and BEARD, CHARLES A. *History of Europe: Our Own Times*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1921. Pp. xiii+616+xxi. \$1.96.
- Sallust's Jugurthine War*. Edited by H. E. BUTLER. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1921. Pp. 151.
- URIBE-TRONCOSO, MANUEL. *Por tierras mejicanas*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1919. Pp. xiii+179.
- WALKER, E. M. *Greek History*. London: Basil Blachwell, 1921. Pp. 165.

## BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

## AND PUPILS

- DAVIS, ROY, and GETCHELL, FREDERICK G. *Stories of the Day's Work*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1921. Pp. viii+318. \$1.28.
- DRUSHEL, J. ANDREW, NOONAN, MARGARET E., and WITHERS, JOHN W. *Arithmetical Essentials, Book Two*. Chicago: Lyons & Carnahan, 1921. Pp. xiv+306.
- HUGHES, R. O. *Economic Civics*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1921. Pp. xv+331.
- RIDGLEY, DOUGLAS C. *The Geography of Illinois*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1921. Pp. xvii+385. \$2.50.
- SKILLING, WILLIAM T. *Nature Study—Agriculture*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1920. Pp. vii+332.
- SNYDER, WILLIAM T. *Everyday Science*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1919. Pp. xviii+645+26.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION  
AND OTHER MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

Recent issues of the Bureau of Education:

- Bulletin No. 13, 1920—*Educational Work of the Commercial Museum of Philadelphia.*  
Bulletin No. 35, 1920—*Agriculture in Secondary Schools.*  
Bulletin No. 41, 1920—*The Francis Scott Key School.*  
Bulletin No. 4, 1921—*Monthly Record of Current Educational Publications.*  
*Report or Survey on Intermediate Schools and Classes.* "School Document No. 19." Boston: School Committee, 1921. Pp. 83.  
*Statement of Principles and Procedure Affecting Grades VII-XII in the Reorganized Plan of Secondary Instruction with Special Reference to Grades VII-IX, Inclusive.* "School Document No. 2." Boston: School Committee, 1921. Pp. 31.

MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

- CLOPPER, EDWARD N. *Child Welfare in Tennessee.* Nashville, Tennessee: Department of Public Instruction, 1920. Pp. 616.  
COHEN, HELEN LOUISE. *One-Act Plays by Modern Authors.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1921. Pp. lxi+342.  
CROSBY, RENA L. *The Geography of Bible Lands.* New York: Abingdon Press, 1921. Pp. 242. \$1.75.  
EINERT, MARGARET. *The Rhythmic Dance Book.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1921. Pp. xi+96.  
HERFORD, OLIVER. *The Herford Aesop.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1921. Pp. viii+90.  
JENKINS, HESTER DONALDSON. *The Perfect Gentle Knight.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1921. Pp. 59. \$0.32.  
LANDES, MARGARET W. *The Philosophical Writings of Richard Burthogge.* Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co., 1921. Pp. 245. \$2.00.  
*Manners and Conduct In School and Out.* Edited by the Deans of Girls, Chicago High Schools. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1921. Pp. iv+28.  
MUCH, HANS. *The Hope of Our Children: A Treatise on Tuberculosis in Juveniles.* San Francisco: Courier Co., 1921. Pp. 22. \$0.60.  
*Plays for Amateurs.* Prepared by New York Drama League. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1921. Pp. 24.  
*Papers and Proceedings of the Fifteenth Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Society: Some Newer Problems, National and Social.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1921. Pp. 281. \$2.00.  
RICH, FRANK M. *Morning Readings.* Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1920. Pp. 355. \$2.00.  
RUCKER, AUGUSTA. *Ten Talks to Girls on Health.* New York: Womens Press, 1921. Pp. 99. \$1.00.  
WRONG, GEORGE M. *The United States and Canada.* New York: Abingdon Press, 1921. Pp. 191.

